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Life and Education.

POLITICIANS at Washington and party newspapers generally show a tendency to confuse two distinct questions concerning the financial policy of the government. There are several disagreeable facts that do not admit of denial—first, since 1887 each year has seen a net exportation of gold from this country amounting in the eight years to about \$300,000,000; second, most of the gold exported has been taken from the vaults of the national treasury, gold always being on sale there without limit; third, the expenditures of the government during the last two years have exceeded the receipts; fourth, the government has been forced to borrow money in order to meet its obligations, and has thus within two years added over \$160,000,000 to the national debt.

The situation evidently calls for relief. It must be admitted that we cannot continue to export more gold than we produce and long remain on the gold basis, and that it is not in

the long run good policy for any government to run into debt for current expenses. Hence, we are confronted by two evils—something wrong with our foreign trade and something wrong with the national income. Since the tariff has to do with foreign trade and also with national income, it is not at all surprising that politicians have jumped to the conclusion that a reconstruction of the tariff will mend both evils. On the other hand, President Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle recognize but one evil, namely, the conditions which permit the unlimited withdrawal of gold from the United States Treasury for export, and accordingly they urge the retirement of the greenbacks and treasury notes as being the instruments used in draining the treasury.

To any intelligent person not anxious to make capital for a political party or a particular policy it must be evident that present conditions raise two distinct questions—one relating to the revenue, the other to the currency. The fact that the government's receipts fall below its expenditures certainly calls for critical examination, and for measures to increase the revenues if the deficiency cannot otherwise be averted. But the continued and painful loss of gold, breeding distrust abroad and dismay at home, is a different matter altogether. It is due to abnormal conditions that cannot be cured by doctoring the revenue.

SECRETARY CARLISLE estimates that the receipts of the government this year will nearly equal the expenditures, and is of the opinion, therefore, that no revenue legislation is needed. Mr. Carlisle's well-founded lack of reputation as a prophet, and the fact that his partisan bias is just now opposed to tariff changes, undoubtedly justify his opponents' suspicion of his estimates, of his diagnosis of national ills, and of his remedy. Yet the Republicans in Congress should not let themselves be led astray. Two evils threaten the country, each a serious one. Because the

administration lays all stress on the one, the Republicans should not make the blunder of putting all emphasis on the other.

It is a truism of economics that gold will not leave a country unless it is worth more elsewhere. Only a few days ago New York shipped \$500,000 in gold to South America. It was sent there because it was worth more, would bring more, there than here. For eight years gold has been almost a constant cargo of outgoing steamers from New York. The cause, so far as it lies in financial conditions, is simple enough. We have been steadily inflating our currency with paper and silver; our government by herculean efforts, and not without cost, has maintained popular faith in these new dollars; and as a result they are now doing the business that was formerly done by gold, so that gold, not being needed here as money, is going in accordance with the laws of trade to the places where it is wanted. The only way to keep gold here is to make it worth here as much as it is elsewhere; and we cannot do that unless we expel some of the substitutes that now perform the money work of the country, and thus create a demand for gold in our currency. President Cleveland and his Secretary are right, therefore, in urging the retirement of greenbacks, but they err in supposing that the greenback because of its claim to perpetual redemption is the sole cause of mischief. It doesn't matter whether we get rid of silver dollars, silver certificates, national bank notes, treasury notes, or greenbacks—the effect will be the same; gold will take the place of the canceled dollars, we shall have an excess of gold imports rather than of exports, and the eye of business will no longer be fixed with apprehension on the gold reserve in the national treasury.

IT CANNOT be doubted that the idea of placing women upon the school boards appeals strongly to the common sense of our people, and to their deep attachment to the public school system.

This institution which came earlier to a full development in the United States than in any other country has long been a source of national pride, and the growing conviction

that the schools are suffering from putting on the managing boards petty politicians, who are not single-minded in the discharge of their duties, has touched the public conscience where it is most sensitive. Indifference gives way before the idea of denying to the children the best possible opportunities.

In the face of the expert testimony which has been given publicity within the past few years it is impossible to believe that our schools are as a rule as well managed as they should be. We have also had lately abundant evidence that women bring to the study of social questions an amount of attention to detail and a conscientiousness in their work which cannot be too highly valued. These qualities, as exhibited by public-spirited women, are obtaining full recognition, and there is an almost unanimous belief that they can be utilized in the management of the schools to the great advantage of the community.

Since the foundation of the Civic Club of Philadelphia it has worked unceasingly to better the condition of the schools. It has studied the methods of control, the influence of art in school rooms, the introduction of musical teaching, and many other details. Its last service has been the selection, with extreme care, of competent women for the sectional boards in fifteen wards. The names of those chosen were sent to the political organizations with a recommendation that they should be put upon the ballots. This recommendation has been endorsed by the entire press of the city, and has won favorable comment from newspapers throughout the state. It was met by the party managers in many wards with promises to nominate the women selected. In the Eighth Ward the promise has been kept by the Republican organization, and Dr. Clara Marshall will undoubtedly be elected. In the Seventh, Tenth, Twenty-second and Twenty-fourth wards the Municipal League has nominated the Civic Club candidates.

Where the dominant party has failed to keep its promises for reasons of supposed expediency a mistake has been made, which will bear its fruit in time. It is not a question of women or men; it is simply one of fitness;

wherever a well-qualified person has been rejected and a less fit one taken for party reasons the people will resent it. They are in earnest about the schools, and it has come to be seen that a school board is a place where a capable and unselfish woman can do better service than an incapable and selfish man.

THERE are some interesting educational statistics in the monograph "Extension of University Teaching in England and America," prepared by James E. Russell, Ph. D., and just issued by the University of the State of New York. In England "in 1850 with a total population of about 18,000,000, there were only 1,844 schools under inspection, and these were but half full, the attendance being 197,578, with accommodations for 370,948." "In 1870 the number of schools under inspection had increased to 8,986, with 1,255,083 pupils in attendance; in 1890 the schools numbered 19,498, with an average attendance of nearly 4,000,000. State grants have grown from £20,000 in 1834, and £180,303 in 1864, to £6,500,000 in 1894." Dr. Russell very properly adds, "No words more eloquent could be spoken than the simple recital of these facts."

There will hardly be any to dispute Dr. Russell's assertion that this great increase in public education in England is an outgrowth of the larger political and social freedom which has developed since the passage of the Reform Bill of 1832. "Slowly, English-speaking people have come to recognize the principle that a man has rights of more worth than political privileges; that good citizenship presupposes good citizens."

This principle has a very direct bearing upon that phase of popular education with which Dr. Russell's book is chiefly concerned, University Extension. Among the various critics of the movement there have been not a few who honestly regarded it as a mischievous influence, tending to educate the masses into a state of discontent with their condition in life. A complete reply to such an objection is contained in just such a review of public education as is made in this book. The popular demand for increased knowledge is an

overwhelming force growing out of the universal tendency of the age, and reactionists can no more resist it than they can stop the spread of democratic ideas. The only practical question is, shall this knowledge be of the right sort or of an altogether wrong and vicious sort? Shall it be gotten from cheap newspapers and sensational books, or shall it be delivered through the medium of the standard free library, the systematically graded school, and the University Extension lecturer equipped with the authority of superior education?

Such critics misinterpret the nature of the discontent engendered by right education; it is a divine discontent with the limitations of ignorance, and it begets aspiration and resolve to penetrate ever deeper into worthy things. The University Extension lecturer opens up unthought-of vistas to his hearers and convinces them of their limitations; unless he is altogether false to the spirit of the movement which he represents, he assures his audience, explicitly or implicitly, that he is but indicating a plan of attack, which they themselves must pursue by personal study of the books to which the syllabus refers them; his true service consists in the suggestions which he gives for rational, methodical study.

THE *Philadelphia Bulletin*, in commenting favorably upon Dr. Albert A. Bird's course of lectures at the Spring Garden Institute on the government of Philadelphia, suggests that the work of popular education might be taken up by such men as Joseph L. Craven, Hampton L. Carson, S. Davis Page, George D. McCreary, Louis Wagner, Theodore M. Etting, Charles H. Banes, William Porter and Charles F. Warwick, men "who are able to talk in a popular and entertaining vein after the manner of Dr. Bird, and without reference to politics." We heartily approve of this suggestion and wish that some of our public-spirited citizens would act upon it. For eighteen months Dr. Bird has been making a careful study of the municipality, and the University Extension Society would be glad to offer the results of his labor to men of the standing of the gentlemen named who would undertake to educate the people in this important subject.

Municipal Reform by Proportional Representation.

The misgovernment of American cities has become a national reproach, and notwithstanding the general humiliation and indignation which is felt with reference thereto, the people who are interested in having a better administration of public affairs, in a great measure, seem to be helpless when they undertake to remedy the evils from which they suffer. But why are they helpless?

Our municipalities are nominally controlled by systems—varying somewhat in details—of what is called representative government. That is, the voters are supposed to authorize certain persons to represent their interests and act for them in the legislative bodies which make the laws for the control of municipal affairs. This we are in the habit of assuming is "Government of the People, by the People and for the People," and it is further assumed that the people are free to select persons who will truly represent the interests and opinions of those who choose them. Now, have the people such freedom, and can they or do they exercise it when they vote for their representatives? Let us see how the system is arranged and how it works in practice.

Our cities are almost universally divided into districts in each of which one representative is elected. The voters in those districts are always divided into two or more parties, only one of which has a majority or a plurality of votes, and, consequently, elects its candidate. Those who belong to the minority party or parties are then without a representative, at least in respect to all matters concerning which their interests and opinions differ from those of the majority. That is, suppose that in a district having 600 voters there are 301 Democrats and 299 Republicans, the former would elect their representative, while the latter would be voiceless and voteless in the governing body. Or suppose that there are 201 Democrats, 200 Republicans and 199 Prohibitionists, then the 201 Democrats would be exclusively represented, while 399—nearly double the number—of other voters would be without a deputy or agent to speak and act for them. A very marked example of this kind of injustice occurred in the City of New York in 1892. There were then about 170,000 Democratic voters in the city and 100,000 Republicans. At that election these 100,000 Republicans, most of whom were presumably reputable voters, did not elect a single member of congress, member of the state legislature or board of aldermen. Now all fair-minded people must recognize the injustice which was

a consequence of that election and of the system on which it was conducted. The hundred thousand Republicans who were unrepresented probably included a larger percentage of the intelligence of the community than would be found among their opponents, nevertheless the former were deprived of all part, influence or agency in the conduct of the legislative department of the great city and state of New York. The exposure of the unparalleled corruption in the city government a few years thereafter, showed that the influence of the more intelligent and honest people was sadly needed in the conduct of public affairs.

The system under which the City of New York, and nearly all other American cities are governed, inevitably results in the disfranchisement of a large proportion—often a majority—of the people. This evil is inherent in our present method of electing single representatives from limited districts by a majority of the voters.

The principle that majorities should rule is so universally accepted in this country that we are apt to lose sight of the fact pointed out by Plato that, "there is but a very small remnant of honest followers of wisdom." It needs no demonstration to prove that the wisest, the most intelligent, most honest and unselfish, or, in short, those best qualified to direct legislation are always a minority. These to a very great extent, are excluded from their due influence by the present system under which we elect representatives to our legislative bodies. It is true that those best qualified to direct and control legislation may vote with the majority, but it is rare that they are permitted to select the candidates or that they have a real liberty of choice in the election of those who are to make laws for them. What ordinarily does happen in most districts, and in all parties, is that candidates are selected who will be acceptable to a majority of the least worthy portion of the voters in their respective parties and districts, and all that the people who are best qualified to control legislation can do is to vote for those candidates who are least objectionable to them. Under our present system a minority in a district is unable to select and elect a candidate who would really represent their ideas and the policy which they favor. Any number of minorities are equally powerless. Thus supposing that there were three contiguous districts, each with 600 voters, 400 of whom will be classed as least intelligent and honest, and 200 as being relatively superior in knowledge, wisdom and integrity. If the 600 intelligent voters who form the minorities in the three single districts were all

segregated in one district, they could then act together and unite their voices and votes, and elect a candidate who would adequately and worthily represent their views and interests. Now, if they are entitled to this privilege by a mere change of residence, or possibly, as is often done, by altering the boundaries of districts, what justice is there in depriving them of the right of combining if they happen to be residents in different districts? Obviously it would be just and fair and wise to allow minorities, although scattered over areas included in a number of districts, to act together if they wish to do so, and unite their votes and influence to elect one or more persons of their own choosing to represent them. This is what proportional representation aims to accomplish.

How will it do this? The reply is first, by abolishing the system of electing single representatives from limited districts. This may be done by enlarging or consolidating several districts so that they will then be entitled to more than one member who will be elected on a general ticket. Second, by giving voters in such districts freedom, in some way, to unite their votes on one or more candidates so as to secure their election if they receive a certain quota of votes.

The simplest plan of doing this, or the one which is most easily understood and has been tested by its use for a quarter of a century in this country, is that of cumulative voting, which was adopted twenty-five years ago in the state of Illinois, for the election of the members of its House of Representatives. The districts in that state were then so arranged that one senator and three members of the House are elected from each, and the constitution was amended so as to provide that in voting for the latter "each voter may cast as many votes for one candidate as there are candidates to be elected, or may distribute the same, or equal parts thereof, among the candidates as he shall see fit, and the candidates highest in votes shall be declared elected." In other words, he can give three votes for one candidate, or one and a half for one and one and a half for another, or one for each of three. The consequence of this is that any party in a district having more than a fourth of the votes, and uniting them on one candidate, may elect him in spite of anything that the majority can do, and in nearly, or quite, all the districts of the state, both the Republicans and the Democrats elect either one or two representatives. In those where the Democrats are in the majority they usually elect two, and their opponents one. In Republican districts the reverse usually occurs. It is true that it happens some-

times that a minority party by more skillful organization and management, succeed in electing two members, but it occurs rarely, and experience has shown that it is not a very serious defect in the system of election adopted in that state. The point to which especial attention is called here is the power which such a system gives to a number of voters, considerably less than a majority, to concentrate their votes and make them effective. Let it be supposed for example that three of the aldermanic districts in New York City, having each 600 voters, were consolidated and that three members of the Board of Aldermen were elected therefrom by the Illinois method. There would be 1800 voters in the enlarged district. Supposing, now, that through the influence of Tammany and the Republican machines notoriously bad nominations were made for both parties—as is often the case—and that, as also usually happens, a very considerable number of voters were disposed to bolt and vote for a better nominee than they were permitted to have by the political managers; under the present system of electing a single member in each district, the bolters in any of them would be powerless, unless they had a majority or a plurality of the votes. The proposed consolidated district would have 1800 voters, one-fourth of which would be 450. If, now, more than 450, say 451, should bolt and unite their votes it would leave 1349 in opposition. If their votes were equally distributed among three candidates, each would have only 449 $\frac{2}{3}$, so that the independent candidate would be elected, and if he had the support of more than a fourth of the voters those remaining could not elect more than two candidates by any possible combination they might make.* Now, it usually happens that in all cities there is a righteous remnant of voters in each district, but they are unable to unite their influence and their votes with those elsewhere in choosing representatives.

The Illinois method of election would give them such power, and to that extent would make them independent of the domination of the political bosses. It would also have another very important result; it would make their candidate independent of the unworthy voters. Elected in that way by truth-telling, debt-paying and God-fearing electors, he would no longer be required to seek favor and influence in the rum shops and disreputable purloons of his district, but he would know and could feel that he had a righteous constituency

*This may be expressed mathematically if we let N represent the total number of votes in a district; then:

$$\frac{1}{4}N + 1 > \frac{\frac{3}{4}N - 1}{3} = \frac{1}{4}N - \frac{1}{3}$$

of his own behind him, whose support he would depend upon so long as he worthily represented them and was faithful and competent in fulfilling the trust imposed upon him. They could re-elect him as often as they chose, and thus greater permanence of office and service would be secured to experienced legislators. The effect of this would be that men of ability and distinction who now shun political office with its attendant responsibilities because it forces them into contact with those who are corrupt and whose habits, characters and practices are loathsome, could then be induced to accept office as an honor and could render service to those who are worthy of respect. It would remove the necessity for electioneering, log-rolling, bribery and hypocrisy, and make the office-holder free and independent, and enable him to maintain honorable relations with his constituents. The gain in this way would be very great. It would give us independence from party bosses, who now tyrannize over us, rob us and despise us.

At present it is impossible for reputable voters to exercise their due influence in the election of representatives. We are the slaves of the primaries. Independent men, who will not subject themselves to the authority of those in control of political organizations, are not permitted to take any part, or at least are excluded from the preliminary deliberations, which in reality determine the selection of nominees. Once nominated, if the party which a candidate represents, or misrepresents, has a majority in the district, it is almost impossible to defeat him. The only alternative left, usually, is to vote for an opponent in the other party, and often he is no better than the first. By a system of proportional representation, any considerable minority of voters dissatisfied with the nominees of the regular parties, would nominate an independent candidate and elect him. Or, what is perhaps of equal importance, if the members of a party in the majority are dissatisfied with the regular nominees, they could make a bolt within their party and elect one candidate without disrupting the ties of their respective organizations, which have so strong a hold on some people, and which it seems to them it is treachery to violate.

But it may be, and is said by another sort of people that proportional representation is a fad, a theorist's dream, an impracticable scheme. The reply to this is that the method which has been described was adopted and has been in use in the great state of Illinois for twenty-five years. It does work in practice, and no more difficulty is encountered in its use than in the application of any other system. It is not impracticable, but on the

contrary has worked very well. Those who predict failure for such a system should study the history of its operation, not only in Illinois but elsewhere. It can confidently be said that it has accomplished the following results:

First, it has inured—to use a somewhat rare but very good word—the practice of electing several representatives from each district instead of one only, and it has been shown that the attending difficulties are practically *nil*.

Second, it enables any fraction of the voters greater than a fourth in a district to elect a candidate.

Third, it gives voters three candidates to choose from, all of whom may be elected instead of one only.

Fourth, it leads people generally to take more interest in public affairs, because all can have a part in legislation and the conduct of government.

Fifth, by giving a more just representation to parties and people it allays party bitterness.

Sixth, it makes candidates more independent of unworthy voters, and abler men can thus be attracted to public life.

Seventh, it is said that it results in the selection of abler men as candidates of the minorities than would be selected by parties who are in a majority in the different districts.

These results are certainly of very great importance in the promotion of good government.

It is not argued that the Illinois system is an ideally perfect one. In fact it is admitted by all the friends and advocates of proportional representation that it has some very grave defects. It has, however, put into successful practice the important principle of the election of members by a quota of votes less than a majority or plurality of all. But this principle has not been carried far enough in that state. Its House of Representatives now consists of 153 members, and the total vote in the state at the last election was 859,275. These votes divided by the number of members would give a quota of 5616; that is, in strict justice every 5616 voters who unite on a candidate should be entitled to have him as a representative. At the election referred to the People's party cast nearly 60,000 votes and the Prohibitionists nearly 20,000; nevertheless neither of these parties elected a single member, because they had not the requisite quota in any of the districts. The Populists were justly entitled to ten members and the Prohibitionists to three. If they could have united the votes which they cast in several districts they could have elected some if not all of the representatives to which they were justly entitled.

The obvious cure for this evil is to enlarge the districts still more, so as to include either five or seven representatives, or possibly more, from each. It would then be in the power of any number of voters in a district greater than a sixth or an eighth, or a still smaller proportion, to nominate and elect a candidate. This would give still more freedom of choice and more independence in the election of members than Illinois voters now have.

Districts, however, should not be too large, because voters will not take the trouble to investigate and judge of the qualifications of more than a few candidates. If asked to form an opinion of the merits and ability of three or five they may probably do so, but if the number is increased to fifteen or twenty they would be likely to ignore all responsibility in making their decision.

In England, school boards are elected by a system of cumulative voting, and in some cases as many as fifteen members are chosen in one district. Each voter has as many votes as there are members to be elected, and he can distribute his votes as he chooses. The object aimed at there is to give the different interests, especially the various religious sects, representation on the boards. While it has accomplished this purpose, experience has shown that in many cases there is a great waste of votes; that is, popular candidates get many more—sometimes four, five or six times as many votes as are needed to elect them. The converse of that evil is that then obscure and incapable candidates are often elected by comparatively few votes. It can readily be seen that the larger the number of members elected from each district, the greater is the probability of a waste of votes.

Another simple method which has been proposed, is what is called the "Single vote." By this system the districts are arranged so as to elect a number of representatives from each. It will be assumed that this number is seven. Then each voter is permitted to vote for one only. The result would then be that any candidate who gets more than an eighth of the votes would be elected. This method is open to the same objection, however, that is made to cumulative voting. That is, popular candidates would probably receive more votes than are needed to elect them, which would permit obscure, incapable or unworthy candidates to be elected by a comparatively small number of votes. It is believed though that either of these systems would be a very great improvement over our present method of electing single members from limited districts.

A great deal of thought and ingenuity has been exercised in devising plans for obviating

the objections to these methods of electing representatives. The complications and refinements of some of these would be difficult for ordinary voters to understand. It would lead too far to attempt to give even an outline of these plans at present.

At a meeting of the friends and advocates of proportional representation, held last August at Saratoga, various methods were considered, and it was agreed to recommend what is known as the Swiss system of election, which is the one that has been adopted in several of the cantons of Switzerland, and has been in use for a number of years past, in the election of members to their governing bodies. The provisions under this system vary somewhat in the different laws which have been enacted and proposed. The simplest form is that which provides for the election of a number of members from each district, and that each elector shall have one vote, which is counted first for his party and next for the candidate for whom he votes. After the election the total number of party votes, which have been cast, are divided by the number of candidates to be elected, which gives the quota of election. The votes given for each party are then divided by the quota which gives the number of candidates to which the respective parties are entitled, and that number of candidates, of each of the parties who have received the highest number of votes, are declared elected. In some other laws the voter has as many votes as there are candidates to be elected, which he may distribute as he chooses among the candidates, giving not more than one vote to any one candidate, and all the votes to which the elector is entitled are also counted for his party.

It is not intended here to suggest a specific plan for securing proportional representation, but only to indicate how reform in municipal and also in other governments may be effected by it, in giving freedom and independence to voters in the exercise of that right which should be inalienable.

The corruption, inefficiency and abuses of various kinds which have been revealed in municipal affairs with such lamentable and discouraging frequency, have led many people to lose faith entirely in representative government, and disposed them to curtail the powers and privileges of representative bodies. But the evils with which we are all so familiar are not due to defects in the principle of representative government, but to the fact that those who secure nomination and election do not truly represent the people. At present we are tyrannized and oppressed and misgoverned by politicians organized for plunder into political machines. What we want is freedom to select

and power to combine with others in the election of representatives of our own choosing.

Under a system which would secure proportional representation to all considerable and influential bodies of voters, as John Stuart Mill long ago said, "the instructed minority would, in the actual voting, count only for their numbers, but as a moral power they would count for much more, in virtue of their knowledge, and of the influence it would give them over the rest. If the presence in the representative assembly can be insured of even a few of the first minds in the country, though the remainder consist only of average minds, the influence of these leading spirits is sure to make itself insensibly felt in the general deliberations, even though they be known to be, in many respects, opposed to the tone of popular opinion and feeling."

But as Mr. Mill has further said, if they had real freedom in selecting their representatives, "the multitude have often a true instinct for distinguishing an able man when he has the means of displaying his ability in a fair field before them." It is this capacity of discernment in the people which is the basis in which our hope for improvement of all democratic government must rest, but in order that the people may exercise it, they must be free to choose men whose ability they recognize. This freedom proportional representation would give them, and it is believed would strike off the shackles of the party bosses by whom all voters are now held in bondage.

M. N. FORNEY.

Recent Events in the Municipal History of Vienna:

AS ILLUSTRATIVE OF THE POLITICAL POSITION OF THE CAPITAL CITIES IN EUROPE.

The increasing importance of city institutions in the national life of all countries has brought with it the general recognition of the fact that, as regards form of government, a definite distinction must be made between rural and urban divisions. This distinction has not been accompanied, however, by a similar differentiation of administrative problems within the limits of city government itself. In almost every country we find that the attempts to prescribe the same form of government for all cities, small or great, has proven a failure. Either such provisions have been disregarded through a broad interpretation of the courts, or

the very force of circumstances has compelled a modification of such legislation. Of the former, we have an excellent instance in most of the states of the Union, where, in spite of constitutional restrictions, the courts have recognized the necessity of special legislation for cities of different sizes. France furnishes a classic example of the latter.

In most European countries the problem of governing the large cities is further complicated by the fact that the largest city is at the same time the capital of the state. Under such conditions, it becomes exceedingly difficult to reconcile the principle of local self-government with the supervision which the state must necessarily exercise when questions of national concern are at stake. Much of the time of the national legislatures in England, France, Germany and Austria has been given to this question within recent years. With the extension of the suffrage a new and complicating element has been introduced.

In England this movement has given rise to the demand for "Home Rule for London," and has resulted in largely increased powers of the new County Council. In France the demand for the emancipation of Paris from the direct control of the central government has been increasing in strength since the beginning of the Third Republic. In Germany the large measure of independence allowed even to the largest cities has made the problem a less pressing one. In the United States numerous experiments which have been attempted within recent years serve to show the uncertain position of the municipality in our political system. There is a general consensus of opinion, however, that our cities must be assured greater freedom from interference on the part of the state legislature. This feeling has found its expression in a large number of constitutional restrictions which are becoming with each new state constitution more detailed and more specific.

In Austria the tendency towards decentralization seems to be less marked than in any other of the countries of Western Europe. Recent events in the municipal history of Vienna seem to confirm this fact as regards the position of the capital city. They further serve to illustrate an exceedingly interesting phase in the industrial development of that city. It may be well to give the circumstances which led to the peculiar form of government under which Vienna is at present being administered. For some time past the Anti-Semitic Party has been gaining strength in municipal elections. As to the cause of this movement some difference of opinion exists. It is undoubtedly a fact that the

Liberal Party, which had for some time past been in the ascendancy, especially in the Municipal Council, had dissatisfied the electoral body by its lack of positive policy in social legislation. This feeling was further strengthened by the fact that, in national politics, this party had adopted an attitude of conciliation and compromise toward the non-German population of the Empire. One of the fundamental principles of the Anti-Semitic Party in both Germany and Austria has been the preservation of the so-called "distinctively German institutions and national sentiment." In this they have been largely supported by the Conservatives, particularly by the extreme right wing of that party. These facts tended undoubtedly to favor the growth of the more radical elements. As regards the local conditions in Vienna, however, there are certain fundamental economic facts which will tend to explain the surprising growth of the Anti-Semitic Party. From a commercial point of view the city has never recovered from the disastrous panic of 1873. During the past ten years the struggle for existence among the artisan class, which is so largely represented in the Viennese population, has been becoming more and more keen. Those industries which lend themselves more particularly to production on a small scale have formed one of the most important factors in the industrial development of the city. The production of fancy goods of various kinds—toys, leather goods, fans, etc., occupied large classes of the population. Within recent years industry on a large scale has seriously endangered the economic position of these classes. In addition, the extraordinary industrial progress of Germany has reduced the importance of Vienna as a commercial centre. As a result we find the spirit of discontent rapidly gaining ground, and obtaining expression in an adherence to the party which offered a definite and positive social program, advocated legislation tending to improve the condition of the artisan class, and, singling out the Jews as a commercially successful class, made the attack upon them the centre of political agitation. The leaders in this movement have time and again asserted that it is an economic and not a religious crusade that they are conducting.

Under the circumstances it is natural that this party, like the Social Democracy in Germany, should have been able to group about itself the discontented element of the population. At the recent municipal elections, held early in November, the Anti-Semitic Party was returned to the Municipal Council with ninety-two out of a total of one hundred and thirty-eight members. This large majority

seems all the more remarkable when we stop to consider that universal suffrage is not a part of the Austrian system. The electors are divided into three classes. First, those paying a municipal tax of at least 200 florins; second, those paying between 30 and 200 florins; and third, all others; that is, those paying more than five and less than thirty florins, together with those of the professional classes who do not come within the other class groups. The age requirement is twenty-five years. Under this system over seventy per cent of the adult males are excluded from the franchise. In a total population of nearly one and a half millions there are but 60,000 electors. Each class elects one-third of the members of the Council. Of the total electors about $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent constitute the first class; 24 per cent, the second; $68\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, the third class. Under such circumstances it would seem that the wealth of the community held the balance of power. Sufficient influence, however, seems to have been brought to bear upon the second and third classes and a certain percentage of the first class to return the Anti-Semites with a two-thirds majority. Under the form of government the Municipal Council elects the mayor, whose election, however, is subject to the confirmation of the Emperor. Soon after the first meeting of the new council Dr. Lueger, the leader of the Anti-Semitic Party, who is also the leader of the national organization, was elected mayor by a large majority. The consent of the Emperor was withheld, and, at a new election, to which the Council proceeded, their former choice was re-affirmed. The municipal code applicable to Vienna gives to the central government the power to dissolve the Council and to carry on the government of the city by means of a State Commission. The government immediately made use of this right, dissolved the Council, and has placed a government commissioner, with fifteen assistants, at the head of the administration of the city. The dissolution of the Council and the establishment of the Imperial Commission constitute ministerial acts for which the Ministers of the Crown are responsible to the Imperial Diet. The action of the ministry in this case has been sustained by that body. In accordance with the provisions of the municipal statute the electors of the city will be given another opportunity to elect a Municipal Council, in the course of a few weeks, but it is also tolerably certain that the central government will not recede from its position in refusing its assent to the election of a representative of the Anti-Semitic Party to the position of mayor.

As to the question of justification for this extreme form of governmental interference

with local affairs, it must be remembered that in these capital cities far more than local interests are concerned. Even as regards interests which, in provincial cities are of purely local importance, such as, for instance, street making, lighting and the like, the state, owing to the fact that central political authorities are often dependent upon the efficiency of such local service for the proper discharge of their functions, has a distinct interest in the character of municipal services. This necessity of central control becomes all the stronger when we consider functions of more general concern, such as police, and all legislation for the public safety. It is necessary that the central government should at all times be able to assure itself of freedom from interference due to local disturbances. Another fact which it is important to note in this connection is that, owing to the concentration of the national life in these capital cities, and the great influence which they exercise on the political opinions of the nation, it becomes a matter of national importance that the municipal administration should not become a machine for purely political purposes. It is impossible to separate local from national politics in their political life. When, therefore, the local legislature has become of a character to endanger the public interests of the state there seems to be every reason for an assertion of central authority. In Paris, where the Municipal Council is apt to take a *doctrinaire* and extremely radical view of local affairs, being often tempted to use its powers for the purpose of agitation on national subjects, the state has reserved to itself the power of strict control over the execution of the decisions of the Council. It is, of course, an open question whether this assertion of central authority, as in Vienna at the present time, can give anything more than temporary relief. If the state refuses to allow the municipality to settle these issues in its own way, it must be prepared to undertake the permanent administration of its capital city.

The experience of American cities has been limited to the assertion of legislative authority in questions of administration. Fortunately, the division of political parties in the United States is along lines which does not, as a rule, call for extraordinary measures, no matter which party happens to be in the ascendancy. From the point of view of a satisfactory division of powers between state and municipality, the outcome of the struggle in Vienna, however, offers questions of more than local interest.

L. S. ROWE.

University of Pennsylvania.

Mr. Thomas Hardy.

It is obvious that so prolific and distinguished a writer as Mr. Hardy cannot be competently dealt with in the course of a single brief article; but perhaps a modest appreciation of his work may not be out of place at this juncture, in view of the fact that the first uniform edition of his novels is nearing completion. An author who has sixteen volumes to his credit, besides uncollected work, and about whom two volumes of criticism have been published, is certainly worthy of some serious consideration.

Mr. Thomas Hardy is about fifty-five years of age, and is a native and resident of the Wessex he has made so famous. He was bred to the profession of architect and tried his youthful hand at poetry as well, both facts being abundantly evident to close students of his works. He published his first novel, "Desperate Remedies," in 1871, and won a conspicuous success with "Far from the Madding Crowd" three years later. In 1878 he touched what his professed admirers are wont to deem his high water mark, in the powerful story entitled "The Return of the Native." The reputation thus achieved by vigorous, original, and somewhat bizarre talents, if not of positive genius, was not lessened by the publication in 1886 and 1887, respectively, of those strong novels, "The Mayor of Casterbridge" and "The Woodlanders." But it was not until the appearance in 1892 of "Tess of the Durbervilles" that this reputation became co-extensive with the range of the English language. There is now a considerable body of readers and critics who would not hesitate to agree with the present writer that Mr. Hardy is the greatest living English novelist. Naturally, this acquisition of fame has made our author an object of great interest to gossips of all sorts, but his modesty has eluded their pertinacity, and little is known of the man save what can be gathered from his books. These may now occupy our attention.

Mr. Hardy resembles the giant Antaeus, in that he gets his strength from contact with his mother Earth—which means, strictly speaking, that he is at his best when he is describing the life and natural features of the still primitive regions covered by the counties of Devon, Dorset, Somerset, Hampshire and Wilts—or, as he prefers to call it, Wessex. This is but to say that he has followed the fashion of the day in courting and achieving success as a provincial rather than as a cosmopolitan novelist. Local color does not count for everything with him, but it counts for much. This fact is shown by the comparative

failure of such stories as "The Hand of Ethelberta" and "A Laodicean," which introduce us to London and the Continent and to well-dressed people, when compared with such a simple idyl as "Under the Greenwood Tree," or with the least powerful of the Wessex stories proper, whatever we may determine that to be. Indeed, the chief promise of Mr. Hardy's first novel lay not in the intricate plot foreshadowed by its title, but in the vivid and charming descriptions of rural manners and scenery—discriptions which, along with a fresh and subtle humor, made his second volume, the idyl referred to above, a bit of rural genre painting perhaps unsurpassed in this generation. Our author has evidently recognized this source and secret of his power, for he has of recent years made few excursions from his native heath.

But a provincial novelist, endowed with rare powers of description and with subtle humor, while likely to be delightful to most cultured readers, is hardly likely to strike them as being great. Yet this epithet has been applied to Mr. Hardy by not a few critics who are chary of their praise. What, then, are his special claims to greatness? Would they be assented to if he had merely written several idyls like "Under the Greenwood Tree," or a dozen such pure and excellent historical romances as "The Trumpet Major," or a score of such powerful though rather unlovely studies of passion as "Two on a Tower." A negative answer seems hardly doubtful. But can "The Return of the Native," with its positively magnificent setting in the weird Egdon Heath and its stirring play of tragic passions, "The Mayor of Casterbridge," with its profoundly psychological study of a masterful character, "The Woodlanders," with its admirable blending of passion and pathos, justify us in attributing greatness to their author? The present writer would still answer in the negative, though many admirers of Mr. Hardy would not. In what works, then, and in what special aspects and qualities of his creative power does the novelist rise to greatness? To attempt an answer to such a question in the case of a contemporary writer is always a matter of risk; but the risk shall be run and the answer shall be made—in "Tess of the Durbervilles" and "Far from the Madding Crowd," the two novels in which Mr. Hardy has given us characters possessing an elemental quality either of greatness or of shrewd mother wit and humor that would not misbecome a tragedy or a comedy of Shakespeare. *Tess Durbeyfield* and *Joseph Poorgrass* are creations of Shakespearian stamp that the world will not willingly let die. *Eustacia Vye*, the tragic heroine of the "Return of the

Native," *Michael Henchard*, the protagonist of "The Mayor of Casterbridge" and *Marty South* and *Giles Winterbourne*, the pathetic sufferers of "The Woodlanders," however notable they may be as creations, are not of the Shakespearian stamp and bear the complexion of mortality.

Now, this is obviously a matter about which one cannot reason and may well be mistaken; but if what is claimed for these two characters be true, then beyond all doubt Mr. Hardy is a great novelist. The reader can therefore turn to the stories named and make up his own mind. Yet, after all, what we have been attempting to do has really been to answer the question, "Will our novelist live for future generations?" We have left out of sight the question, "What message has he for his contemporaries?" This question of course presupposes that Mr. Hardy belongs to the class of writers who instruct as well as please, but it does not at all mean that he consciously writes his novels with a purpose. He is too good an artist for that, but he has seen so much of the life of humanity, and thought so deeply about it, that it has been impossible for him to refrain from giving us not a little of that criticism of life which is the basis of all great fiction as well as of all great poetry. In this sense Mr. Hardy has a message for his generation which it will be well for us to consider.

Viewed in all its relations, this message must be described as that of a pessimist, which accounts for the novelist's comparative unpopularity with the numerous class of readers, who think that the main object of fiction is to put one in a good humor with one's self and with life in general. Mr. Hardy's pessimism is not, however, of the crude sort that comes from shallow thinking, or of the morbid kind that tends to paralyze all hope and effort. He gazes on the dark side of life oftener than on the bright side, but he believes that man may ameliorate his lot by looking things in the face and laboring to improve them. If one could not believe this to be her creator's attitude, the fate of *Tess Durbeyfield* would not be highly tragic, but too poignantly terrible for artistic treatment, while that of *Jude the Obscure* would be revolting. Yet the story of *Tess* is a high and noble tragedy, despite the endeavors of critics like Mr. Lionel Johnson to assign it to a lower plane of artistic creation, and that of *Jude*, though not a noble tragedy, is one that should be treated with more respect than our "unco guid" public is showing it. This last story, and indeed, not a little of Mr. Hardy's work, is constantly spoken of as repulsive, but the work of a true artist is never repulsive to a

public trained to appreciate art, and that Mr. Hardy is an artist few readers whose opinion is worth having would care to deny. His pessimism will not of course be grateful to a thorough-going optimist, but this fact only proves that there is no such person as the thorough-going optimist, and that the people who call themselves optimists are hardly worth considering in a serious discussion. The question is, not is Mr. Hardy's criticism of life pessimistic, but is it true, either in part or in whole? If it be true, we are next forced to ask ourselves, what we can do to improve our own lives and those of others in the particulars that have formed the burden of our novelist's message. No man or woman can read any of Mr. Hardy's books and put this question honestly to himself or herself without becoming wiser and better. In other words, the man has a message for all of us, and when we put that message aside with such ejaculations as "pessimistic," "repulsive," "degrading to human nature," *et cetera*, we are little wiser than ostriches hiding their heads in the sand.

It will be gathered from what has been said that our novelist belongs to the class of writers known as realists, but, like all great authors, he refuses to be labeled with any one name. There is nothing more idealistic in fiction than the description of Egdon Heath in "The Return of the Native," and of the effects of its sombre vastness upon its scattered inhabitants. It would be as idle to call the Zola of "Germinal," or the Balzac of "Eugénie Grandet," a realist pure and simple as to apply that appellation to the author of "Tess," the idyllic parts of which are as idealistic in their way as any English pastoral of Tennyson's.

Now, in conclusion, we may claim for Mr. Hardy that he has created at least two great characters, that he has a message for his contemporaries which they cannot afford to slight, that he possesses a power of description and a fund of humor that cannot easily be paralleled among living writers, and that he is a thorough artist in the evolution of his stories. He is more—he is a story-teller who writes because he has a story to tell which will out and must be listened to. He is something of an Ancient Mariner who has seen strange and weird things and who stops us even when we are bound for a wedding and holds us with his "glittering eye." Some people may make a great outcry about unlawful detention and damage done to their feelings, and may even try to call in such an exemplary guardian of the public peace and morality as Mr. Anthony Comstock to apprehend the "suspicious character," but there are some of us who listen

to him with wonder and admiration, and rise "the morrow morn" sadder and wiser men.

W. P. TRENT.

University of the South.

Philadelphia Street Railways and the Municipality.

[CONCLUDED.]

The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the famous Dartmouth College case held that charters of incorporation are contracts between the legislature and the corporators, and the grant of a franchise can not be rescinded by the legislature, or its benefits diminished or impaired unless the right to do so has been specially reserved. The State of Pennsylvania was slow to recognize the far-reaching consequences of this decision, and did not until 1857 impose any constitutional restriction upon the legislature's power to grant irrevocable charters. In that year the following amendment to the Constitution was adopted: "The legislature shall have power to alter, revoke or annul any charter of incorporation hereafter conferred by, or under any general or specific law whenever in their opinion it may be injurious to the citizens of the Commonwealth, in such manner, however, that no injustice may be done the corporators." This is substantially the constitutional provision to-day.¹ It is fortunate that the amendment was made just at the time that street railway enterprise was in the infancy of its development, and before corporate influence had become dominant in the legislature. The result is that nearly all, if not all, of the street railway companies in this State hold their charters subject to the power of the legislature to control or modify them at will.

Immediately after the adoption of the present constitution in 1874, which deprived the legislature of the power to incorporate by special act, a general corporation law was enacted. But no special provision for the incorporation of street railway companies was made until the Act of May 23, 1878. This act applied to cities of the third, fourth and fifth class. In the following year an act was passed applying to cities of the second and third class. This was subsequently declared unconstitutional on the ground that it was local and special legislation.² The legislature made no special provision for the incorporation of street railways until 1889, when a general act providing for the incor-

¹ Const., Art. xvi, § 10.

² Weiman v. Pass. Ry. Co., 118 Pa., 192.

puration and government of street railways throughout the Commonwealth was passed.¹ This law was retroactive, permitting existing street railway companies incorporated under the acts declared unconstitutional to accept its provisions, and ratifying the acts done by such companies under color of the charters they had formerly received.² There is, however in Pennsylvania no law to-day under which elevated railway companies may be incorporated.³

The street railway companies soon recognized the economic and administrative advantages resulting from consolidation, and many lines were consolidated with or leased to others, or were absorbed by merger. The application of electricity as a motor power made the economic advantages of combined operation greater and more apparent. Accordingly in 1883 a general act was passed by the legislature providing for the incorporation of motor or traction companies. This act gave the motor companies organized under it power to enter upon any street occupied by a street railway company, with of course the consent of the company, and to "construct, maintain and operate thereon such motors, cables and necessary and convenient apparatus and mechanical fixtures as will provide for the traction of the cars of said railway company." It was under this act that the Philadelphia Traction Company, the first of these companies in this city was incorporated. It is to be noted that it was not a passenger railway company, but merely had the right to supply motor power to draw the cars of other companies.⁴ All traction companies were by the terms of this act made subject to such reasonable regulations for the protection and convenience of public travel as City Councils might by ordinance establish.

They were authorized to hold the real estate necessary to the purposes for which they were created, and such personal estate as they might acquire in the prosecution of their business. They were not given permission, however, to own any of the stock of the companies operated by them, while the general corporation act of 1874 made it unlawful for any such corporation to use its funds to purchase stock in another corporation, or to hold the same except as collateral security for a prior indebtedness.⁵ Nor had they any authority to lease the lines to which they furnished motor power. The managers of the Philadelphia Traction

Company were not long in discovering that these irksome provisions were in their way, while the removal of these restrictions would permit a consolidation which would enable the directors to go before the public when they sought new favors with the plea that they were receiving only an ordinary return upon the money invested, while, as a matter of fact, they would by indirect methods be obtaining an enormous return.

Accordingly, in 1887 the legislature passed a new act governing the incorporation of traction companies which modified the previous act in several important particulars. In addition to the powers usually possessed by corporations, a traction company was permitted to "invest its funds in the purchase of shares of stock and bonds of any corporation whose works, railway motors or other property are leased, operated or constructed by it," and to "lease the property and franchises of passenger railway companies which they desired to operate, and to operate said railways."¹ This made the traction companies special recipients of legislative favor. It was expressly provided, however, that the capital stock of any such corporation should not exceed \$5,000,000, and that the holdings of the stock at par of other corporations should not at any time exceed 50 per cent of the aggregate par value of its own capital stock then issued, and that the total stock and bonds of other corporations so held should never exceed the par value of the shares of its own capital stock.

The feature of this act which is of importance for our present purpose is that the traction companies were enabled to lease as well as to operate the passenger railways, and to invest their funds in the stocks and bonds of the roads leased. Prior to the passage of this act, as has been already stated, it was unlawful for any corporation to use its funds in the purchase of any stock in any other corporation or to hold the same except as collateral security for a prior indebtedness. This act removed the first barrier to a consolidation under which the enormous returns already realized might be perpetuated by concealing them in the juggle of transfers, leases and mergers. Accordingly, the traction companies are able to go before the public with the apparently truthful statement that they are receiving only a very moderate return upon the capital stock.

But coupled with this power of consolidation was the very important proviso that no traction company should enter upon any street for the purpose of controlling and

¹ Act May 14, 1889, p. 211.

² Ibid. § 20.

³ Potts v. Quaker City Elevated Railway Company, 161 Pa., 395.

⁴ Act of June 13, 1883. § 6. War. Op., 1885, p. 97.

⁵ Act April 29, 1874. § 11.

¹ Act May 31, 1887 § 2.

operating the railway constructed therein, without first obtaining the consent of councils. This provision applied to all companies incorporated under the original act as well as to those organized under its supplement. This placed the power of controlling consolidation where it properly belongs—in the hands of those presumably most interested in the matter, the local authorities. Consequently, if a system of consolidation inimical to the public welfare has been permitted to take place, the responsibility cannot be shifted to the shoulders of the legislature that passed the act, or of the governor who signed it, but it must rest on councils and on the people who elected them. For the local authorities have possessed full power under the act not only to dictate terms and exact conditions, but even to prevent all consolidation so far as the leasing of the street railways by the traction companies is concerned. It is high time that the voters of Philadelphia realized that if they want home rule they must be prepared to accept the attendant burdens and responsibilities.

It was soon discovered by the companies that a capital of \$5,000,000, the maximum limit fixed by law, was inadequate for the object which they had in view, and, accordingly, by an act approved June 8, 1891, all corporations of whatever kind were permitted to increase their capital stock up to \$10,000,000; and the stock of traction companies might equal \$100,000 per mile of track. As the estimated cost per mile, of the trolley system, according to expert testimony, including paving, is only about \$12,000, it is quite likely that the \$100,000 limitation is satisfactory to the traction companies.

A brief statement of the dividends of certain roads is given for the purpose of showing the real significance of the consolidation which has taken place.

In making up this statement, the object has been to select not those roads which pay the highest dividends, but representative roads under the control of the three traction companies which have recently combined to form the Union Traction Company. The figures given are taken from the reports of the railway companies to the Secretary of Internal Affairs, and from the standard works, "American Street Railway Investments," and "Pennsylvania Securities," and are believed to be illustrative. They are intended merely for illustration, and not as a complete statement.

The Citizens' Passenger Railway Company is probably at present the best paying road in Philadelphia. The company was incorporated March 25, 1858, and has an authorized capital of \$500,000, of which \$192,500 has been paid

in, being \$20 per share on 8500 shares, and \$15 per share on 1500. Prior to its lease to the Electric Traction Company it paid the following dividends: In 1885, \$14 per share; in 1886, \$17; 1887, \$12; 1888, \$13; 1889, \$15; 1890, \$13, etc. July 1, 1889, a distribution of \$18 per share was made to the stockholders on account of the distribution of the proceeds of the sale of the lease of the Empire Passenger Railway Company to the Union Passenger Railway Company. It will be seen that from the sale of this lease the stockholders realized on 1500 shares, \$3 per share more than the stock originally cost, and that on the remaining shares all but \$2 per share of the original cost was returned to the stockholders. Consequently, all dividends declared since 1889 have been based upon 1500 shares, the original cost of which with \$3 per share additional has been returned to the stockholders, and 8500, the original cost of which, less \$2 per share, has been returned to the stockholders.

On April 1, 1892, this road was leased to the Frankford and Southwark Company for a term of 999 years at a rental equivalent to \$11.50 per share the first year and gradually increasing to \$14 per share for the seventh year and each year thereafter. On July 1, 1893, this lease was assigned to the Electric Traction Company. Accordingly after the seventh year the rental paid is equivalent to a dividend of 73 per cent, and this is guaranteed for nearly a thousand years. If the actual cost of the stock to the original holders, after deducting the proceeds from the sale of the Empire lease, should be made the basis of computation, the dividend would be one of several hundred per cent (824 per cent). In addition to this the company in 1894 reported a surplus of \$295,000, all of which except about \$3,500 had been spent for real estate, equipment, etc., and it has no funded debt.

The Union Passenger Railway Company was chartered April 8, 1864, and has an authorized capital stock of \$1,500,000, all of which has been issued, with only \$925,000 paid in. It is perhaps worth noticing that with a paid-in capital of \$925,000 this company reports its cost of construction and equipment at the modest sum of \$4,717,507.57, while its total funded and floating debt is only \$750,000, leaving a handsome excess of more than \$3,000,000.¹ On June 30, 1884, three years before such action was legalized, this road was leased to the Philadelphia Traction Company for a term of 999 years, at an annual rental of \$285,000, and all fixed charges. This is equivalent to a dividend of more than 30

¹ Rep. of Sec. of Int. Affairs, 1894, p. 150 F., 135 A.

per cent of the paid-in capital. It is definitely known that the Philadelphia Traction Company owns shares of this stock to the par value of \$125,000.

The Germantown Passenger Railway Company was chartered April 21, 1858, and has an authorized capital stock of \$1,500,000, of which \$572,800 has been paid in. On October 1, 1881, this road was leased to the People's Passenger Railway Company for a term of years at an annual rental of \$135,000, and interest on bonds, taxes, etc. When the People's Company was merged into the People's Traction Company, organized in 1893 for the purpose of operating it, by agreement the rental for the Germantown Company was increased to \$157,000 per annum, or about 28 per cent on the money invested. The charter of this road contains a clause to the effect that Councils have power to levy a tax on the gross receipts of the company not exceeding 5 per cent.¹ This power has never been exercised.

It was perfectly apparent to the gentlemen who owned the controlling stock in the street railways of Philadelphia that a time would come when the people of this city would begin to reflect on the nature of street railway franchises and the true relation of street railways to the public. And they also foresaw the probability that when the people should reflect on the matter they would be unwilling to allow the "great captains of industry" who own the stock to continue *in perpetuo* to make at the expense of the public from 20 to 100 per cent on the money invested. It was also clear that the people had an easy and effective way of closing the door to these enormous profits by means of the reserved right, embodied in the ordinance of 1857, to purchase the roads at their original cost. The question with the managers accordingly was how to defer as long as possible the inevitable awakening which should lessen their income. The incorporation of the traction companies for the purpose of combining the operation of the roads furnished the opportunity, provided only that the people could be hoodwinked until the thing was completed. It is a mistake to assume, as is generally done, that consolidation *per se* is bad. On the contrary, whether the consolidation is the result of municipal ownership or of private ownership, it is both economically and administratively advantageous. I shall not stop to argue the question, but a little reflection ought to convince the most skeptical that this is true. It has been substantiated by abundant experience. The real problem, so long as the ownership of the railways remains in private hands,

is to so regulate and control them that the economies resulting from consolidation may, in part at least, inure to the benefit of the public.

Nothing short of access to the stock-books of the leased and leasing companies will disclose the whole truth in regard to the relation of the leasers and lease-holders. This is a matter which might be profitably investigated by the Senate committee. Surface indications are sufficient, however, for our present purpose. An examination of the names of the officers and directors of the various companies discloses the fact that many of the directors of the traction companies are also directors of the roads leased by them, and, *ex necessitate*, stockholders in both. One man, the chief figure in the old Philadelphia gas ring, was in 1894 not only a director in the Philadelphia Traction Company, but also a director in six other roads operated by it. Another prominent politician is at the same time a director of a traction company and of four of the lines operated by it. In the case of each of the roads described above we find the names of the same men among the directors of the traction companies and the roads operated by them. Now there would be nothing remarkable in this if it were not for the fact that the traction companies are paying such enormous rentals to the roads leased. The true significance is that the directors of the traction companies are paying to themselves as stockholders in the leased roads these enormous sums. Prior to its lease the stock of one of the roads costing originally \$16.75 per share was quoted at \$200. That stock is no longer quoted on the market. The street railway lines have disappeared from the stock world and faded from the public view. The traction companies have taken their place. When any new privileges are sought it is not the street railway companies that ask for them but the traction companies. It would have been of no consequence to the stockholders of most of the street railway lines whether the trolley privileges were or were not granted. Their dividends are no longer dependent upon the earning capacity of the roads, but are fixed sums determined by the rentals paid. But the question was of great importance to the traction companies, and, accordingly, although the grants were nominally to the street railway companies, it was a traction company that made the proposals and urged the passage of the necessary bills. When some return for the valuable privileges was demanded, it was the traction company that pointed to the fact that in equity no such return could be required, for the company was paying less than 7 per cent on the money invested. When any

¹ Act of April 21, 1858, P. L. 594.

outcry is made against high fares the Philadelphia Traction Company immediately presents the plea that it has never paid more than a 6 per cent dividend, while the Electric and People's show that they never have paid any. Surely the interest of the public-spirited men who have invested millions in traction stock must receive some consideration at the hands of the public. This argument, presented by the paid lawyers and lobbyists of the traction companies, some of whom are also stockholders, is not without its influence upon many of the fair-minded members of city councils. For there is no disputing its apparent truthfulness. But it is not the whole truth. John Smith, as director of a traction company when he informs the public that he is receiving only 6 per cent on the money invested, does not at the same time tell them that he is paying himself as a stockholder of a leased line 60 per cent in the form of a rental.

There is still another method whereby a somewhat different result is obtained and the city deprived of its just dues. Not all of the roads leased are paid large rentals. The Seventeenth and Nineteenth, for example, was leased for a term of ninety-nine years to the Continental which in turn is leased to the Philadelphia Traction Company for \$15,000 per annum, or just 6 per cent on the capital stock. This is one of the roads required by its charter to pay into the City Treasury a tax of 6 per cent upon all dividends in excess of 6 per cent. But as the road is leased for just 6 per cent, there will, for ninety-nine years at least, be no excess, and consequently the city would receive nothing. It is of course quite possible that the net earnings of this road do not amount to more than 6 per cent. It is, however, located in the heart of the city, and runs parallel to the Thirteenth and Fifteenth Streets line only two blocks away. The Thirteenth and Fifteenth is leased to the Philadelphia Traction Company at a rental equivalent at present to more than 60 per cent, and increasing in the future. The question naturally arises by what process of legerdemain was the Philadelphia Traction Company able to induce the directors of this road, situated in the centre of the city, and with an ever-increasing earning capacity, to lease it at so low a figure. The answer is not far to seek. The Philadelphia Traction Company owns every dollar's worth of stock in the Seventeenth and Nineteenth, and by this process is able to save for the stockholders what should go to the city, according to the terms of its charter. For whether the earning capacity be 6 per cent or 600 per cent, the city will receive nothing. Moreover, the Seventeenth and Nineteenth

owns the franchise of the Empire, which, too, is required to pay a similar tax, but by this sort of juggling is able to evade any payment.

The Philadelphia and Gray's Ferry road was leased to the Philadelphia Traction Company for 999 years from January 1, 1891, at a rental of \$43,225 for the first five years, and \$49,400 per annum thereafter, in addition to all taxes, running expenses, etc. As the capital stock of the road is \$308,750, the rental is at present a little more than 10 per cent. This road is required by its charter to pay into the city treasury, whenever the dividends exceed 6 per cent, a tax of 6 per cent on the dividends declared. It reports to the Secretary of Internal Affairs for 1894 that the cash dividends paid were \$40,137.50. It did not pay anything into the city treasury as required by its charter, and I have not been able to discover by what process of sleight of hand it has been able to make the city solicitor believe that it is complying with the law.

ALBERT A. BIRD.

To the Editor of the CITIZEN :

SIR : *The Saturday Review*, usually so caustic, has a remarkable editorial in its issue of January 11, in which it frankly admits that it has changed its views on the Venezuelan question, because, as England cannot fight the world, she prefers to make up the quarrel with her kinsmen in order to be free to deal vigorously with the foreigner."

If we may rely upon the press dispatches this is fairly representative of English sentiment and we ought to meet it in a friendly spirit. Instead of blustering war everywhere, in Congress, in our newspapers, in our public meetings, we should be anxious to bring about a reconciliation with England, not by truckling, but by insisting on our rights with dignity and by awaiting the results with patience. There is nothing in this dispute which two great nations of kindred blood cannot adjust amicably if they will show the proper spirit instead of threatening each other like two street bullies. And if we must give our warriors an opportunity to show their metal, let it be in a worthy cause. The situation in Armenia is such as arbitration probably cannot settle, and I for one welcome the suggestion which has been made that America should offer to join England in settling this case forever. Such a step would probably precipitate a general war, but the cause is worthy, and an Anglo-Saxon union would bring together two nations which cannot be at odds without committing a crime against civilization. X.

Old Authors.

John Dryden.

He is called *Glorious* John Dryden. Merely to earn this title was to live not in vain. It is even better than *Rare* Ben Jonson. The epithet is well chosen. In Dryden's best poetry or best prose—and it was he who insisted that an author should be measured only by his best—there is a gusto like the tonic of a lusty winter's day. It is "glorious."

It needs no courage to praise Dryden, for all praise him. They praise him in spite of, it would be cynical to say *because* of the fact that few read him. It is a pity that we do not read him more. Our late nineteenth century writers surpass him in many particulars; to their subtleties of analysis, deftness of touch and nice effects he could never have attained. But they seem in peril of cultivating these tender graces to the neglect of the harder staples of literature. "Nice touches" are admirable adornments to literature; Shakespeare is full of them; remember the conversation between Duncan and Banquo about the "martlets" which nest in the cranies of Macbeth's castle, and remember how Brutus was solicitous that his little page should not lose sleep; but we must also remember that these fine strokes in Shakespeare do not stand alone, that they are but shadings to the free, bold strokes by which the master has limned his pictures; the genius and power of the lines about the "martlets" lie in their contrast with the sullen roar of the oncoming tragedy; and there is a new significance in the tenderness of Brutus when we remember that this is the night before Philippi. Shakespeare's immortality is not built upon his touches. Now Dryden lacks this delicacy altogether, but our languid, introspective, nerve-cursed moderns could learn several healthful lessons from a man whose eyes looked outward, whose pulse was normal and whose common sense was indomitable. Dryden is eminent in that rather small number of writers, such as Steele, Fielding and Walter Scott, whom we call *wholesome*, and contemporary literature is not notoriously wholesome.

The influence of his robust personality is felt through all the history of Restoration literature, he dominates that literature just as he used to dominate his contemporaries, when he sat in his arm chair at Will's Coffee House, and discoursed on poetry and criticism, for, like Ben Jonson before him, and Addison and Dr. Samuel Johnson after him, he was the literary dictator of his age; and a more genial monarch never reigned. Of course there were ill-conditioned fellows jealous of his supremacy, who wrote and said scurvy

things about him. "Tom" Shadwell and "Tom" Sternhold were prominent malcontents. "Dullness is fatal to the name of Tom," said Dryden. With good-humored forbearance he let many attacks pass unnoticed, but when, from time to time, he did rouse himself, it was to decisive battle. He didn't "wage war" against his enemies; he destroyed them. When he had prepared the artillery of his satire, he, like "that two-handed engine at the door, [stood] ready to smite once and smite no more," and he hung aloft the mutilated remains of his victims that all posterity might behold and wonder.

Although his influence is so strongly felt we know singularly little about his life. Perhaps this is fortunate, seeing that almost every fact which is known has provoked controversy. In this very brief sketch it will not be necessary to enter into the details of these various debates, and if in the little that is said on the subject the writer seems to err on the side of leniency, it should simply be born in mind that there is no proof for the numerous charges that have been brought against him; that his literary inconsistencies bear more than one interpretation; and, above all, that as he was not a whig he has had the misfortune to incur Lord Macaulay's displeasure.

John Dryden was born August 9, 1631, in Northamptonshire. There are rumors of an early love affair. There are similar rumors about most men who become prominent enough to get themselves talked about. The next rumors are about his student life at Cambridge, where for some misdemeanor he was disciplined—with a cudgel, it has been hinted. For this humiliation he is supposed to have had his revenge in later years, when he wrote a prologue to Oxford, in which he said that the older university was dearer to him than his *alma mater*. But Dryden's soul was almost too big to harbor malice, and as he had a superb gift of flattery, matched only by his superb gift of irony, we must not attach too much importance to his utterances on such a topic.

Before going to Cambridge, Dryden had written his first poem, in commemoration of the death of a school-fellow at Westminster, Lord Hastings. This attempt is memorable because it is the worst elegy that ever got into print. Here are a few lines from it. The reader will lose the delicacy of the allusions unless he keeps in mind the information contained in the first line, that the young lord died of small-pox.

"Was there no milder way than small-pox.
The very filthiness of Pandora's box?"

Blisters with pride swelled, which through his flesh did
sprout,
Like rose-buds stuck in the lily-skin about.

Each little pimple had a tear in it,
To wail the fault its rising did commit ;

No comet need foretell his change drew on,
Whose corpse might seem a constellation."

This is not intended for humor. Refined taste was never a marked characteristic of Dryden, but common-sense was. The fault here is that he is not listening to the homely voice of common-sense, but is following in the footsteps of Donne and the other poets of conceit.

His literary development was very slow, but continued to the day of his death. He did not write a real poem until he was twenty-seven years old, but unlike many poets who mature early, he had not written himself out at thirty-five. The first poem was that on the death of Cromwell; it was not great, but it was vigorous and distinct, never inspired, but at times attaining to a sonorous rhythm like good oratory :

"His grandeur he derived from Heaven alone,
For he was great ere fortune made him so ;
And wars, like mists that rise against the sun,
Made him but greater seem, not greater grow.

Two years later he welcomed the restoration of the Stuarts in "Astræa Redux." Thus he has been called a political turn-coat. But this is rather straining a point. Dryden's was not a strenuous soul; he never made any pretence to be a through-flood-and-fire martyr; like many decent men of the time he was ready to accept any form of government that would bring peace to the troubled land. At heart he was a Cavalier rather than a Puritan, and he could welcome King Charles with perfect sincerity; nor does this imply that he was insincere in his lines on Cromwell. Those lines are no confession of faith; they simply express the writer's admiration for a very great man. Breadth of vision was one of Dryden's attributes, and he could see the majesty of the Protector, though he might yearn in his heart for the amenities of a different sort of administration.

In 1665 the plague broke out in London and Dryden sought refuge from the scourge in the country with his wife's family, for by this time he had married the Lady Elizabeth Howard. And here again rumor is busy. But there is no evidence to prove that the marriage was unhappy. They who find damaging evidence in the tart opinions on marriage expressed in the comedies forget that this theme has been meat and drink to the comic dramatists of all ages. The great London fire followed the pest, and in celebration of the two plagues Dryden wrote his first strong poem, "Annus Mirabilis," in 1667.

The same year he returned to London and began his long career as play-wright. He pro-

duced some twenty-five plays, which may be roughly classified as heroic dramas, tragedies and comedies. The importance of studying literature in a systematic historical way cannot be better illustrated than by reference to Dryden's heroic plays; the casual reader will find in them nothing but bombast and formalism, and hence will doubtless be disposed to take issue with the student's opinion about Dryden's poetic rank. The present generation, instructed in a naturalistic school, abhors that which is irreconcilable with human reality. But we must bear in mind that *a priori* judgments of this sort will exclude from literature not only a large portion of Dryden's work, but also the tragedies of Corneille and Racine. The heroic tragedy was a development of the period and as such must be reckoned with by intelligent criticism. It is sufficient to say that Dryden wrote the best heroic tragedy produced in England, "The Conquest of Granada," from which many lines have passed into the common stock of our daily quotations. But public opinion was even then changing, and in 1671 this type of poetry got its death-blow from that most famous of burlesques "The Rehearsal," which was composed in collaboration by Buckingham and others. Dryden took his castigation with good humor, quietly remarking that "his betters were more concerned than himself."

He is seen at his dramatic best in his legitimate tragedies, of which "Don Sebastian" and "All for Love" are the finest. These, together with Otway's "Venice Preserved" and Shelley's "The Cenci," must be accounted the four greatest English tragedies since the close of the Elizabethan school. This is high praise, but it still leaves Dryden far in the rear of the masters of tragedy. Dryden has accomplished all that can be done by industry and technique, but much is left undone. There was a time, in the years from Marlowe to Ford, when the English air was surcharged with passion and men were as prolific of tragedies as are our authors of sonnets and "prose pastels," but the ardor cooled, and for nearly three hundred years we have striven in vain to rekindle it. "All for Love" is the story of Antony and Cleopatra; it is virile, lucid, interesting, but of Shakespeare's warmth and color there is none. And it fails in another point of comparison; for once Dryden is too tolerant; narrow intensity would have dealt better with this theme; the sub-title, "The World Well Lost" suggests Dryden's moral point of view. Shakespeare saw that the world was not well lost by Antony; here was a man who might have bestrode the world had he not sacrificed his manhood to the luxury of an unworthy passion; this is the pity and the

shame of it. Dryden can not rise to this moral grandeur.

There is little to commend in his comedies. They are not so obscene as Wycherley's, and certainly no worse than Congreve's and Farquhar's but they make dull reading. It requires a stiff moral backbone to resist the fascinations of a dramatist who could create such a character as the coquette *Millamant*. The dazzling wit of Congreve blinds us somewhat to his immorality and we stand ready to condone the same offences which we will not excuse when uttered in Dryden's heavier accents. Such an attitude is, of course, illogical, a survival, possibly, of the animal instinct which identifies right with might; but such are we "miserable sinners."

Dryden was the frankest of self-critics, and he has stated his own deficiencies so clearly that he has saved posterity the task of analyzing the matter:

"I know I am not so fitted by nature to write comedy; I want that gaiety of humor which is requisite to it. My conversation is slow and dull, my humor saturnine and reserved. In short, I am none of those who endeavor to break jests in company or make repartees. So that those who decry my comedies do me no injury, except in point of profit; Reputation in them is the last thing to which I shall pretend."

So much in defence of his literary shortcomings, but what of his immorality? The reply is not tedious. Dryden lived and wrought in the days of the Restoration, the most ribald age of England's national life. If this is no excuse for his individual shortcomings let his accusers be such as, having examined their own hearts, can bear honest witness that they themselves have yielded nothing to the conventionalities of their own time, nor ever sacrificed their better judgment to a prevailing fashion. Let such cast the first stone; silence becomes the most of us.

When Jeremy Collier made his fierce attack upon the immoralities of the theatre, Congreve and the rest of the younger dramatists undertook to defend their works, but Dryden bowed his head and repented. There is something both manly and pathetic in the spectacle of this doughty master of satire standing in convicted silence before his indignant reprover. "It becomes me not to draw my pen in the defence of a bad cause when I have so often drawn it in a good one," he said, and thenceforward ceased to offend, and in later life he wrote to a friend saying that he had been "too much of a libertine in most of his poems" and would like to see them "purged" or "fairly burned." This is an honest man's repentance.

In 1682 Dryden published "*Religio Laici*," an apology for Protestantism. King Charles

was ostensibly a Protestant, and religious feeling ran high; the alleged "Popish Plot" of 1678 had stirred the Protestants into a fever of excitement; a bill was passed excluding Catholics from Parliament and another bill disbarring the Catholic Duke of York from succession to the throne came near passing. Thus a poem which argued for the divine right of Protestantism was very welcome. Within a year after the accession of James II., however, Dryden turned Catholic and subsequently published a plea for his new creed under the title of "*The Hind and the Panther*."

Of course this looks bad for Dryden, but it is rash to assume that he was dishonest in his professions without giving him a hearing. Mr. Saintsbury has shown that the favors which Dryden received from King James were not the price of the poet's apostasy, but only the renewal of the faithless Charles's broken obligations. And it is to be remembered that with the coming of William and Mary and the re-establishment of Protestantism, Dryden sacrificed every advantage rather than turn again. Stripped of his emoluments, he was compelled in his old age to work doubly hard in order to support his family. He was deprived of the office of poet laureate, which he had the humiliation of seeing conferred upon his old enemy Shadwell; and he was also deprived of the post of historiographer royal. It is absurd to say that he would not have been welcome to the new régime; poetry and satire were most powerful political weapons in that day, and they who sat on the throne were not stupid people at all; they would have been glad to enlist the services of the greatest poet and satirist of the age. But Dryden declined to dance to the new pipes. He had found his faith and he kept it. His conversion to Catholicism was ill-timed, but it was probably genuine. Until he wrote the "*Religio Laici*" he had never given much thought to creeds, but with ready enthusiasm he threw himself heartily into the new study, and his gradual conversion to Romanism was not more inconsistent than that of Cardinal Newman; the illustration is Mr. Saintsbury's.

He died April 30, 1700, and was buried in Westminster Abbey by the side of Chaucer. The two men were much alike, broad, shrewd, kindly poets, who never rent their souls asunder in a frantic endeavor to "deliver a message to the race," but who told their matter in a plain, wholesome fashion, and in so doing, created a body of literature which has increased the pleasure of succeeding generations, and hence made the world a more tolerable habitation.

[To be concluded.]

Books.

THE POOR IN GREAT CITIES; THEIR PROBLEMS AND WHAT IS DOING TO SOLVE THEM. By Robert A. Woods, W. T. Elsing, Jacob A. Riis, Willard Parsons, Ernest Flagg, William Jewett Tucker, Joseph Kirkland, Sir Walter Besant, Edmund R. Spearman, Jesse White Maris, Oscar Craig. Illustrated. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Svo, pp. 400.

This handsome volume is a reprint of papers contributed to *Scribner's Magazine* during 1891-3, where the hundreds of illustrations reproduced in its pages served to attract attention to the serious subject discussed in the text. The volumes on "London Labor and London Poor," by the Brothers Mayhew, were likewise recast from a long series of papers that first appeared in a London newspaper, and many excellent books have been made up of articles printed in journals. M. D. Haussouville, one of the foremost authorities on the subject of charities in France, has published several valuable books, largely made up of articles contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the leading French journal. After all, however, there are disadvantages in this sort of encyclopedic treatment of such a subject, and a book that deals with the problems of poverty in London and New York, in Boston and Chicago, in Naples, with chapters on "Tenement Houses," "Fresh Air Funds," "Street Arabs," "Prevention of Pauperism," and half a dozen other topics, may interest, but it can hardly instruct, or take rank with such an exhaustive book as Booth's six volumes on the "London Poor." Then, too, the statements made in these somewhat hastily-prepared papers, even by those who have devoted much time and thought to work among the poor, are often generalizations that will not stand the test of careful analysis, and that throw doubt on much of the array of figures.

In an exhaustive paper on "Agencies for the Prevention of Pauperism," by the Hon. Oscar Craig, President of the New York State Board of Charities, written in 1892, printed in *Scribner's* in 1893, but owing to the writer's death in 1894, not revised for this book, there is the curious statement, credited to Miss Anna T. Wilson, "formerly of Philadelphia, later of the Charity Organization Society of New York," that in 1890, the city of New York, with a population of 1,500,000, appropriated \$1,647,295 for the support of 15,449 children in private institutions, and \$192,997 for the support of 909 children on Randall's Island, while Philadelphia, with a population of one million, appropriated \$28,724 for the support of an

average of less than 250 children in institutions. This is followed by strong praise of the success of the Children's Aid Society, in boarding out children and in finding homes for even those convicted of crime.

This is a characteristic instance of the efforts of those who want to praise a particular system, to disregard facts and figures that do not tally with it. The explanation is very simple,—first of all, the statement is not true, for at that time the Philadelphia House of Refuge had almost as many children in charge as Randall's Island, and the city paid for them certainly three times the amount credited to it in the *Scribner* article; in the next place, while in New York semi-public institutions receive large sums of money from the city, in Philadelphia and throughout Pennsylvania it is the state which appropriates largely to the support of the House of Refuge, to the existing Orphans' Homes, and to the Children's Aid Society, and a reference to the reports of the State Board of Charities would show that the state of Pennsylvania and the city of Philadelphia have contributed freely and largely to the support of reformatories and homes and various other forms of charitable and other work for the prevention of pauperism. True it is, that the public treasury of the city of New York does contribute very lavishly to the support of sectarian and other charities, which are doing good work, while Pennsylvania, under its Constitution, is absolutely prohibited from making an appropriation to any sectarian institution of any kind. This is, however, an isolated instance of the danger of such absolute and general statements as go to make up very largely the papers that attracted notice in *Scribner's* at the time of their publication; the great fault is that they are not homogeneous enough to be good material for a useful handbook of information, nor are facts and figures stated with sufficient precision to be of any real value to those who are engaged in charity work, and are looking for actual information of a kind to meet daily needs.

The conditions of the poor in London and Naples, the provision made at the People's Palace and Toynbee Hall, for the peculiar needs of the East End, are all subjects that lend themselves to picturesque illustrations, but they have little or no practical value or application to our American cities. The elaborate paper on "The New York Tenement Evil and its Cure" is based on purely local conditions, and is almost valueless for those who are engaged in the commendable effort to remove from Philadelphia the reproach of its slums. It is, perhaps, characteristic of Philadelphia that that work has been carried on quietly but effectively in the part of the city

most in need of improvement, but thus far there has been practically no publication on the subject, and no magazine article with illustrations, while the most recent agitation, that of the Christian League, hardly receives more than a passing notice in the newspapers, although it seems to be taking right hold of the question of enforcing all the remedies the law gives, and condemning the worst rookeries as unsafe from a sanitary point of view. Building inspectors and other officials are taking a wise course in thus acting on the complaints made in due form, and there can be no doubt that with constant pressure, the law will be vindicated, and the city rid of a dreadful danger and discredit in its unsavory slums. Thanks, too, to the efforts of another little band of earnest workers, the project of a great tenement house in the midst of the slums, after careful study, was given up as not needed in Philadelphia, but a thoroughly well considered building law was secured at the last legislative session at Harrisburg, which will prevent the putting up of any houses on other than a sound sanitary basis,—and this law will be enforced by the city and its officers.

After all, charity, even that which is limited to "The Poor of Great Cities," is too broad a subject to be summarily disposed of in a dozen papers with attractive illustrations, and it would be more to the purpose to get a plain, unvarnished story from some of the good men and women who spend their lives in looking after the poor, rather than these general descriptions. The College Settlement, the Princeton Settlement, the Bedford Street Mission, the P. E. City Mission, and many other such agencies in Philadelphia, stand for the best types of actual personal relation with the poor in their own homes, and their reports are more likely to show to those whose charity is limited to giving money, the best direction for their gifts, than the magazine articles that make up this showy *Scribner's* volume. It is not without its merits, but it doesn't strike home, as do the simple stories of those who know just what the poor need to be helped and uplifted.

It is worth noting too that the work of charity, both on a large and a small scale, especially that of the Charity Organization Society, is carried on more effectively in Boston and in New York, because in both cities there are large central buildings in which all charitable organizations have their offices, so that there is little or no duplication of work, a great economy of labor and an actual saving in expenditure. Relief both on a large and a small scale is got promptly and effectively, at the least cost of time, money and labor. In Philadelphia there is no unification of the kind, and the Union Benevolent, the Home Mission,

the Charity Organization, and the hundreds of church and other charitable bodies, go on in a sort of local rivalry, each too often anxious rather to maintain its independence, than to co-operate, so as to prevent the abuse of their slender resources by the unworthy, and the unnecessary expense of administering their funds.

Indeed, it sometimes looks as if charity were rather a pretence than a reality, and as if the unceasing appeals for subscriptions and donations were made more in the interest of paid officials than of the objects of charity, the poor and unfortunate. The long array of officers and the display of subscribers and benefactors make up a large part of the waste of money in reports that are rarely read. There is a need of reform from within,—of a concentration of effort, of a simpler and more effective administration at the lowest possible cost, of a more thorough inspection of the work of our charities, local and general. Not long ago there was a movement in the right direction, to introduce here the method tested successfully in Glasgow and in Boston, of systematic giving; each charitable person sending his subscription to a common treasurer, designating the purpose for which it was to be used either in whole or in part, or leaving it to those in charge to put it to such use as seemed best. In this way there is not only a saving of expense and a wise economy, but the condition of making a grant of money was an examination of the work and methods of every charity asking for money, and unless these were found to be good, no grant was made, or it was on the promise of an improvement that would justify its continuance. There can be little doubt that some such method gradually introduced in Philadelphia would be a most effective method of reducing the cost and increasing the efficiency of the multifarious agencies for the relief of the poor that have grown up in the course of years.

True charity has become a matter of sound business administration, and until voluntarily or under pressure our local charities are put on a sound business basis, they will fail to do the best work for the poor or to be safe intermediaries between the donors and the recipients of charity.

Philadelphia, as a municipal trustee, has in charge a number of funds for charities of various kinds; coal, wood, food, some limited to particular districts of the old times before consolidation, all administered by the Board of City Trusts, a large body of gentlemen, some holding office by appointment of the Board of Judges, some ex-officio, *e. g.* the Mayor, the Presidents of Councils, and the Heads of Departments. Girard College and the Girard Estate,

the Wills Hospital, are among the Trusts in their care,—and no doubt these excellent charities and large interests are well administered,—but ought not the Minor Trusts to be so cared for as to use existing agencies, so that the coal and wood and other relief thus distributed should be given to the deserving poor, to those who are known to be such, and is it certain that under the present rules there are not abuses of these fine old charities, tending to breed a class of professional paupers, willing to live on alms, although able to work if need be? There are many old and new charitable trusts, such as the Grandam, for the distribution of coal at half price, the recipients paying in installments, and some connected with churches and societies, and only when there is co-operation with the charity organization or other such well systematized bodies, is there any protection against dishonesty or pauperism of the recipients. So, too, of our medical charities, the dispensaries of our hospitals, etc., how much harm is done by thus cheapening the help given to those who lose all sense of honesty by getting for nothing that which they are perfectly well able to pay for? The soup houses of the city have been greatly improved by being made useful in relieving distress, instead of merely giving food to all comers. Thus, then, there is a large field for the improvement of many, if not all, of our existing charities, before starting new experiments.

J. G. ROSENGARTEN.

NYEKOTORI CHERTI NARODNAGO OBRIZOVANYA
V SOYEDINENNIKH SHTATAKH, D. P.
St. Petersburg, 1895, pp. 211.

SOME FEATURES OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE
UNITED STATES. By D. P. St. Petersburg,
1895, pp. 211.

The author of this book is thoroughly familiar with the school system of the United States. The subject is treated from its historical, economic, social and financial standpoints. He has collected data from many and varied reliable sources, and apparently from personal observation, although the author does not state that he ever visited this country. The first chapter is devoted to the "common features of the American system of popular education and its institution." Here the author points out the fact that, strictly speaking, there cannot be any common features of an American system of education, as every State has its own laws and regulations, and the general government has no authority whatever over educational matters. Then he

points to another source of defect in the school of America, and this is the political partisanship which hinders solidarity and concerted action, and to quote his words, "and lastly, comparing America to Western Europe, the shortcomings which we meet in its realm of education, are to a certain degree natural in a country where people alone create everything from its midst, in the absence of a government which thinks for the people, a government in which would be preserved the best traditions of experienced and conscientiously working specialists."

The second chapter is devoted partly to statistics, in which there is an interesting table of comparative statistics showing the percentage of scholars to the whole population. The United States stand at the head with 22.27 per cent, or one scholar to 4½ persons, and is followed by Bavaria, 21.2; Baden, 20.6; Saxony, 20.2; Prussia, 19.6; Switzerland, 19.5; Würtemberg, 19.0; Germany, 18.8; Lübeck, 18.7; Bremen, 18.0; Finland, 17.6; England and Wales, 16.6; Scotland, 16.4; Hamburg, 15.6; Norway, 15.4; Sweden, 15.4; France, 15.1; Ireland, 14.7; Netherland, 14.2; Belgium, 13.5; Austria, 13.1; Austria and Hungary, 12.9; Hungary, 12.6; Dania, 11.0; Spain, 10.6; Italy, 9.6; Greece, 6.4; Portugal, 5.9; Bulgaria, 5.5; Russia, 3.1; Serbia, 2.7; Turkey, 2.6; Roumania, 2.5.

The author makes but few comparisons between America and Russia. Here is one of them: Concerning illiteracy he says that the colored people showed 56.8 per cent according to the last census, while the recruits in Russia showed a percentage of above 70.

The third chapter treats of the architecture of the schools externally and internally, of which he says that, "the average school in the cities are from a Russian point of view simply magnificent." Then he dwells at length upon school sanitation, school accessories, books, physical education, punishment and order.

The fourth chapter is devoted to the teachers. He deplores their scanty remuneration considering the hard work they have to perform. It is interesting here, to note another comparison of the teachers given in the State of California, 81.3 per cent are subscribers to special pedagogical periodicals, while in the government of Moscow there was one subscriber to 242 teachers or 0.4 per cent.

The fifth chapter treats of methods, hours of teaching, vacation, etc.

The sixth chapter is devoted to the cost of maintaining the schools, where we again find comparative statistics which are prefaced thus: "In the New World the public education takes away from the War Budget all

that which in the Old World the War Budget takes away from the public education."

In 1891, \$146,800,163 were expended in the United States for popular education; for the army, \$48,720,065; for the navy, \$26,113,896: or half of the expenditure for education.

In Russia, in 1892, the amount expended for education including the higher education was only \$15,000,000, while the maintenance of the army cost \$117,434,000, and of the navy \$14,093,000. The percentage spent for education in America 66, in Russia 11.

The following chapters are devoted to the aims of the schools, what the schools intend to make of the scholars; "the public schools are free schools," compulsory education and the secular character of the schools. In speaking about the influence of the school upon the Church and vice versa, he gives, by the way, another comparative table. In the United States, according to the census, there is one church to 370 inhabitants, while in Russia there is one church to 1700 inhabitants.

The eleventh chapter is devoted to the education outside of the school. The American life, so full of political and social interest, the cheapness of books and periodicals, clubs, societies and associations, etc., combine as factors in furthering the education of young men who leave the public school. Here the author gives another statistical item of interest. In 1889 the number of periodicals published in the United States was 16,319. In Russia, in the year 1892, there were in all 792 periodicals of which only 589 were in the Russian language.

"The colored people alone publish more periodicals than there are in all Russia with a population almost twice as large as that of the United States." The night schools and libraries have separate chapters devoted to them.

The fourteenth, the concluding chapter, is devoted to the Society for the Extension of University Teaching—its history, growth and future—and takes up almost one-fourth of the book. The aims and methods of this movement are graphically and glowingly described, and a great and fruitful future predicted. Moulton, Devine and Powell are frequently quoted, and the work done by the Philadelphia, Chicago, Albany and Cincinnati societies are described minutely.

There are many books in the Russian language which treat about the United States, but there is none which will be productive of more good than this book on the education in the United States. The author has indeed rendered a great and lasting service to his country. There is no possibility under the present press-laws in Russia to advocate and propagate any modern ideas in education or

anything else. Such ideas and sentiments as are expressed in this book could not have found their way into a Russian journal. But the author has written in a most innocent way "the way they do it" in other countries and the censor thought there was no harm in that. But any Russian subject who will read through this book will forever be seized with the infectious malady called "discontent with the order of things" in his country and will forever pine and yearn for the American public school, and for the possibility of the establishment of a University Extension Society in his own land.

C. D. SPIVAK.

Book Notes.

An interesting book has been brought to our notice, issued by the Guild and School of Handicraft, Essex House, Mile End Road, London, and by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, U. S. It is called "Chapters in Workshop Reconstruction, and Citizenship," by Mr. C. R. Ashbee, M. A., Architect, King's College, Cambridge.

The book is a thin octavo of 166 pages, well printed in large type, on good paper, with numerous artistic monochrome illustrations. The author, after being educated as an architect, traveled extensively, studying carefully the masterpieces of the world in architecture and art, for he rightly holds that a real architect must be an artist, and that art includes all forms of decorative construction and handicraft. Returning from these "art journeys," as the Germans call them, Mr. Ashbee connected himself with university extension and other enterprises for the benefit of the public in East London, where he is said to have done good work and made of himself a brilliant and instructive lecturer.

In the present work he offers what he calls "some practical suggestions, drawn from personal experience," dealing broadly with two large questions: the "reconstruction of the workshop" and the "training of the citizen for the workshop, meaning, in the main, the decorative workshops. His contention is that art does not run so much in nations as in individuals, and that there are two great movements now going on in our midst, namely, this reconstruction of workshop discipline on a more brotherly basis and the improvement of the worker. He asks for a closer study of the former and a more generous encouragement of the latter movement.

Many of the "practical suggestions" are re-echoes of the familiar doctrines of Mr. Ruskin and other socialistic dreamers. In theory, they are admirable, and are therefore dear to the heart of every good person, but they leave out—on one side of the account—poor human nature as it is; its selfishness, its injustice, envy and jealousy, its indolence, ingratitude and crime. They blink the stern fact that the suffering classes are composed mainly of those who, by their own or their inherited faults, are vicious, idle and stupid. The monkey, the tiger and the sloth in us are ignored, not dealt with. It is easy to say what should be and what might be, but bewilderingly difficult to point out distinctly the next practicable step in the arduous ascent towards perfection.

Some of the suggestions are, nevertheless, really practical and fruitful, as when he refers to the injury resulting in all the arts from the divorce of theory and practice, saying at page 36, "Design is twofold, spirit and flesh, the idea and the manipulation." Also at page 41, "Art must come into the workshop and not remain in

the studio." In this connection some of us can remember Cardinal Wiseman's famous lecture, in which he showed that the decadence of the arts of the middle ages was in great measure traceable to this very separation of theory and practice. Mr. Ashbee is also forcible—witty and brilliant he always is—when he illustrates the educational influence of a superior mind, and argues therefrom the necessity of having good masters for all teaching work, even the humblest, and of paying the masters well; likewise when defining the responsibility of those who have leisure (and he might have added fortune) or when explaining the influence and limitations of the materials and the functions of the tools.

Some really fine things are said about organization, concerted action; about the magnetic affinities that spring up when men are working together to one end and "take creative power from each other." Again, in chapters 6 and 7, about the value of teaching when conducted with practical, concrete examples as opposed to teaching purely in the abstract form.

Throughout the book there are many earnest passages and much real enthusiasm. The author states the case against his own view with admirable fairness and humor,—he can even be light and flippant. And yet, with it all, the latent doubt will haunt us as to the efficacy of this gospel of art teaching to improve the character of the nations or the individuals. Great works of art may be, and no doubt have been, the result and expression of national and individual genius and character, but the works themselves have never inspired nor maintained greatness or elevation of character in the nations which possess them. They have no saving power nor has the ability to produce them any such power. Nothing but the knowledge and practice of virtue can ever make or maintain greatness in nations or in individuals.

An elaborate piece of editing is Mr. James Greenleaf Crosswell's edition of Macaulay's "Essay on Milton," which is published in Longman's "English Classics" series. But as the series is intended to serve as textbooks in literature, the long introduction and numerous foot-notes, which occupy almost as much space as the text, are not only excusable but commendable, for they are done in a thoroughly scholarly manner, and are at the same time interesting. That which would be an incumbrance to the casual reader is an invaluable aid to the teacher and pupil.

The same remarks apply to the edition of Webster's "First Bunker Hill Oration, together with Other Addresses Relating to the Revolution," which is edited for the same series by Professor Fred Newton Scott, except that the foot-notes are less voluminous here than in the other volume. Both books are worthy of the excellent series. They are published by Longman Green & Co., and are sold at 60 cents each.

CASA BRACCIO. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co. 2 vols.

Mr. Crawford's fertility is amazing. In the dedication of "Casa Braccio" to his wife, he observes that this is his twenty-fifth novel, which means that he has been turning them out at the rate of two a year since the day when "Mr. Isaacs" first revealed to the world that another born story-teller had appeared upon the scene. Still the age of satiety has not yet grown tired of him but buys up many editions of each new tale, whether it deals with Italy, Germany, America or the East, feeling sure of getting its money's worth of plot and description, and of meeting agreeable and well-bred people.

"Casa Braccio" belongs to the Italian series, and is rather a new vein, smacking more strongly of the melodramatic than any of its predecessors. The pivot on

which the story turns is the elopement of a nun, and the book is full of battle, murder and sudden death. In fact, the mortality is so wide-spread that by the last chapter all but two of the important characters have expired in one way or another, and the curtain falls on a stage strewn with slain after the manner of "Hamlet" and "Romeo and Juliet." Mr. Crawford has contrived to make agreeable reading out of these unpleasant complications, but if he means to cater to the best popular taste he had much better stick to such milder tragedies as lent a charm to "Katherine Lauderdale" and "The Ralstons." The flight of *Sister Maria Addolorata* comes dangerously near the sensationalism of the dime novel. Her adventures and those of her daughter fill two dainty volumes bound in aesthetic buckram and can be safely recommended to people of stolid natures and no particular nerves.

CHRONICLES OF COUNT ANTONIO. By Anthony Hope. D. Appleton & Co. 1 vol.

HALF A HERO. By Anthony Hope. Harper's. 1 vol.

Here is Anthony Hope's latest literary performance and one of his earliest,—neither, it must be confessed approaching "The Prisoner of Zenda" or "The Dolly Dialogues," though the former is clearly modeled upon the romance which laid the corner-stone of his fame. *Count Antonio* is a hot headed young outlaw ready for deeds of daring and ever athirst for battle, with no objection to wading knee-deep in gore. For love of a lady he was exiled to the hills about Firmola, which, by the way, is not to be found on any known map—and there collected about him a little band nothing loath to adventure, witness the stirring affairs of the Sacred Bones, the Hermit of the Vault, the Prince of Mantivoglia. After four years of this lively existence *Antonio* returns to Firmola and gives himself up to save the head of his cousin *Toramasino*, who has stood by him in trials and tribulations without number, but at the very moment when he stands upon the gibbet waiting to be hanged, by one of those merciful interventions of Providence, only to be found in the concluding pages of popular novels, the wicked Duke dies suddenly. The rope is removed from *Count Antonio's* neck, he is restored to his former honors and possessions, marries the *Lady Lucia*, who is still young enough to be a very good match, and rounds out his chequered career to everybody's satisfaction, especially his own. The story moves with less spirit than "The Prisoner of Zenda," as the quaint English in which it is told is at times forced and constrained.

"Half a Hero" will very soon settle back to the great company of the dull and commonplace to which it was promptly consigned on its first appearance some time ago. It is a very stupid tale of politics and society in the colonies. One brilliant success seems to make an author curiously rash about resurrecting all of his previous failures. Some of Mr. Hope's have not been so bad, but this deserves a grave, unwept, unhonored and unsung. If he were to read Frank Stockton's "His Deceased Wife's Sister," there is no doubt he would become a sadder and a wiser man.

THE AMAZING MARRIAGE. By George Meredith. Scribner's. 2 vols.

An amazing marriage it was indeed! *Corinthia Jane* is probably the only bride in fiction or reality ever taken from the altar to a prize fight, and that too when she had just been made Countess of Fleetwood. The intricacies and evolutions of Meredith's last contribution to print, cause even his most devoted to turn away surprised and grieved. From "Richard Feorrel," "Diana of the Crossways" to "The Amazing Marriage" is a far cry: only here and there in fitful passages is there the

slightest hint of the genius of those other two superb books, and all the author's eccentricities, his mountebank turns of phrase, his fondness for fantastic incident and situation stand out invitingly for jeers and laughter from the chorus of indolent reviewers. Meredith has never been food for the many, to whom he has appeared at best but a man of magnificent vocabulary and curiously involved style, and now he stands in danger of losing the intellectual few who have responded to his clear and subtle understanding of character and motive. *Facilis est descensus Averni.* A few more such fiascoes as "Lord Ormont and His Aminta" and this latest, and the glory of the past will surely be dimmed by the mediocrity of the present.

ANARCHY OR GOVERNMENT, by William M. Salter, is the revised statement of a course of lectures delivered first at the Plymouth School of Applied Ethics, and later before the Society of Ethical Culture of Philadelphia.

Mr. Salter's lucid, simple style is admirably adapted to the purpose of stating such first principles as the distinction between government and "no-government," or anarchy, and the whole discussion is marked by a tone of tolerance which at once wins the sympathy of the reader. Viewing government as a necessity in time of war and scarcely less necessary for the protection of private life and property, the author proceeds to a discussion of the problem of government as an agent for the promotion of the higher ends of life. The discussion is philosophic, but the conclusion as to the relationship of organized society to individual freedom is within the comprehension of the simplest-minded reader: "The question, then, of how far practically a society should go at any given time, and in the midst of any given set of circumstances, is not a question that can be determined by abstract considerations. It is a question, not for theorists, but for practical men of affairs. . . . Political philosophy itself cannot take the place of political training, and the best service such philosophy can render the statesman is to help him get rid of false principles and superstitions, to assist him to an open, plastic mind, and make him free to act in view of circumstances that confront him." New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

We have received from the American Book Company several volumes of their *Eclectic School Readings* series. "Stories for Children" is designed for beginners, and is a collection of easy readings very prettily illustrated, printed in clear type and emphasizing unfamiliar words by bold-faced type. The price of the book is 25 cents. "Fairy Stories and Fables" is a text-book for second-reader grade pupils. The selections are fairy tales only in the broad sense as being tales of wonder and transformations. They are derived from the French, the Norwegian and from the great storehouse of wonder tales, German folk-lore. They are retold by James Baldwin and freely adapted to the needs of American children. Price, 35 cents. Another and very different collection for the second reader grade is "Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans." The romance of our national history is set forth in stories—some very familiar, others less so—of Penn, Franklin, Putnam, Washington, Daniel Boone, Fulton, Audubon and a variety of other heroes in all walks of life. To say that the stories are retold by Edward Eggleston is equivalent to saying that they are well told. The illustrations are line drawings and sketches in India ink by Reinhart and others, a far advance upon the atrocious wood-cut of the school readers of a past generation. Price 40 cents. The same editor and the same artists have combined to make the volume intended for the third-reader grade equally attractive. This is "Stories of American Life and Adventure."

Herein are recited the adventures of some heroes and heroines less famous than those celebrated in the preceding volume; stories are told illustrative of the life of early settlers and of the Indians; and such famous incidents as that of the boy who risked his life to carve his name higher than any one on Natural Bridge are pleasantly related. Price, 50 cents. Another third-grade reader is "Old Greek Stories," a book of classic legend and mythology, edited by James Baldwin and handsomely illustrated by Reinhart. Price, 45 cents.

Pedagogical specialists will doubtless differ among themselves as to whether the series of school readers just described, or that edited by Charles Eliot Norton for D. C. Heath & Co., under the title of *Heart of Oak Books*, is better adapted to the business of teaching children to read. Professor Norton has not undertaken to rewrite his selections, but gives them just as he got them from original standard sources, extending from "Mother Goose Rhymes and Jingles" to Keats, Carlyle and Ruskin. Each of the six volumes of the series is inscribed with this legend: "A collection of traditional rhymes and stories for children, and of masterpieces of poetry and prose for use at home and at school, chosen with special reference to the cultivation of the imagination and the development of a taste for good reading." The cultivation of the imagination and the development of the taste is possibly more prominent in Professor Norton's scheme than the humble task of teaching children to read. In his prefatory note to the first volume he says that "the usual apparatus of a lesson book has been discarded, and no attempt at what is technically known as 'grading' has been made." "The teaching of children to read by means of pieces which have been specially prepared for them, by the omission of all hard words and of all expressions supposed to be beyond their comprehension, is a thoroughly objectionable practice." And he finally states that the assistance of an intelligent teacher is much more valuable than "the use of any artificial system." Whatever may be the opinion of the expert as to this doctrine, there can be no question about the value of the series as handbooks of English and American literature. The boy or girl who reads carefully these selections will have a wider and more varied knowledge of the standard literature of his language than is to be obtained from any other six books known to the writer of this notice. Professor Norton and his editorial associates have done their work as only scholars could; the notes at the end of each volume are sufficient and the biographical tables are valuable as suggestions toward a systematic study of the history of literature. Price of the six respective volumes: .25, .35, .45, .55, .60, .65.

METHODS OF MIND-TRAINING. By Catharine Aiken (New York: Harper & Brothers), is the published account of certain methods for quickening the attention and training the apprehension of school girls by various devices. The discovery that the ability to memorize increases as the power to concentrate the attention is intensified, is not so recent as the author seems to suppose, but her application of the principle seems to have accomplished results that are both extraordinary and gratifying. Fifteen or twenty minutes each day are spent in a variety of exercises, by which the pupil's attention is fixed and her mind sharpened for her day's work; after a brief glance at a blackboard covered with figures the child not only repeats the numbers in order, but performs involved problems in mental arithmetic from her recollection of the numbers. There are equally surprising feats in drawing, music, spelling and in committing to memory prose and verse selections. And, best of all, perhaps, tests prove that the pupils retain the results of their exercises.

University Extension News and Announcements.

A COURSE OF SIX LECTURES

The History of Ireland

W. HUDSON SHAW, M. A.,

Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford.

1. **Monday, February 3d, at 4.30 P.M.**
Ireland During the Dark Ages
Early Christianity and Civilization
2. **Monday, February 10th, at 4.30 P.M.**
The Anglo-Norman Settlement
Ireland under the Tudors
3. **Monday, February 17th, at 4.30 P.M.**
The Age of Conquest and
Colonization
4. **Monday, February 24th, at 4.30 P.M.**
The Era of Commercial Restraints
and Penal Laws.
5. **Monday, March 2d, at 4.30 P.M.**
The Revolt of the Anglo-Irish
Grattan's Parliament
The Revolution of 1782
6. **Monday, March 9th, at 4.30 P.M.**
The History of the Union

Course Tickets, \$2.00

Single Admission, 50 Cents

Syllabus—History of Ireland—15 Cents

ASSOCIATION HALL,

Fifteenth and Chestnut Streets.

Report of the Summer Meeting of 1895,

CONDUCTED BY THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING.

To the Executive Committee of the Board of Directors:

GENTLEMEN:

The third University Extension Summer Meeting was held in the buildings of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, from Monday, July 1, to Friday, July 26, inclusive. The opening session took place on Saturday evening, June 29, with Professor Lamberton in the chair. A masterly and eloquent inaugural address entitled "Democracy," was delivered by Professor Woodrow Wilson, of Princeton. On Monday, July 1, the regular lectures and classes began at 9 a. m., and continued every day, except Saturday, to 5 p. m., with evening lectures at 8 p. m., by Rev. Edward Everett Hale, of Boston; Professors Richard G. Moulton, of Chicago, George L. Goodale, of Harvard, and Bernadotte Perrin, of Yale. The regular departments of study were as follows:

- A. Literature and History, Greek Life and Thought.
- B. Psychology, with Laboratory courses.
- C. Music, Harmony and Counterpoint.
- D. Biology, with Laboratory courses.
- E. Civics and Politics, Courses in Political Science.
- F. Mathematics, Secondary and Advanced Courses.

The total number of students was 225, of whom 85 were men and 140 were women. From Philadelphia the number was 145; from Pennsylvania, outside of Philadelphia, 47; from other states, 33. Table No. 1 gives further particulars relating to the registrations by departments.

On Saturdays, as no lectures were delivered, excursions were made to various points of historic interest in and near Philadelphia. On July 4, a meeting was held at Haverford College, by the kind invitation of President Sharpless, where addresses were delivered by Rev. Edward Everett Hale, Mr. John Sparhawk, Jr., Professor E. D. Cope of the University of Pennsylvania, and Professor Henry C. Adams of the Inter-State Commerce Commission.

We have reason to believe that all the departments of this Summer Meeting were successful, notably, those of Literature and History, Biology and Mathematics. As to the cost of conducting Department B (Psychology), notwithstanding a good attendance, there was a deficit due to the necessarily great expenses of this department.

Department D (Biology) was a distinct success. Both lecturers and students were most enthusiastic. Its success was largely due to the generous assistance of Professor and Mrs. William P. Wilson.

In Department A (Greek Life and Thought), your committee considers that the results were eminently gratifying except as to the finances, which show a deficit in this department. There was a good attendance, and the work was of the very highest character. We gave generously of the best scholarship and the best facilities. In fact the deficit has occurred because the lecturers being men eminent in their departments, it cost more to secure their services than the attendance warranted.

Departments F and C (Mathematics and Music) were on so small a scale that the amounts involved were insignificant.

The greatest deficit, namely \$733, was in Department E (Civics and Politics), in which several expensive lecturers were engaged. It is true that special subscriptions for this department nearly covered the shortage, but nevertheless the fact remains that the number of students was smaller than the excellence of the courses and the work we put upon this department demanded.

We have to thank the Provost and Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania for their hospitality in permitting the Extension Society to use their buildings and grounds. Our thanks are also due to Professor W. P. Wilson, particularly for his aid in organizing; to Dr. Edward Everett Hale, for his extra evening lectures, and to him and Mr. Sparhawk for their addresses at Haverford; to Rev. Dr. Fulton and Rev. W. N. McVicker for sermons delivered especially with reference to University Extension; to Dr. Talcott Williams for his services as lecturer and his invaluable advice and counsel; to Professor Moulton for his evening recitals, which were donated, and to Dr. Edmund J. James for his second course.

It must not be forgotten that many of the lecturers, as Professors Cope, Macfarlane and Kingsley, and Mr. Woodruff and others received a merely nominal fee. Mrs. W. P. Wilson contributed the whole of her services gratis. The fees of Professors Lamberton, Lawton and Bevier, as well as the Rev. William Bayard Hale, were exceedingly small. Professor Woodrow Wilson charged nothing for the inaugural address. Mrs. Stirling's contribution of \$10 from the amount given her by the Association Local Centre scholarship might also be noticed, and the kindness of the Athletic Association in giving us the use of the University Athletic Grounds also deserves recognition.

The total receipts of the Summer Meeting were, \$3,438.99
 " " expenses " " " " 4,058.63

Making a total deficit of \$619.64

The great expense of securing lecturers of the highest class and the prevalent hard times are sufficient reasons for the failure to meet the expenses of an educational undertaking which was in itself a memorable success.

Table No. 1 shows the registration of students.

Table No. 2 shows the receipts from single admissions.

Table No. 3 shows a general statement of income and outgo.

Table No. 4 gives the program of the lectures, and the names of the lecturers.

We annex also a list of lectures and subjects, and submit the whole for your consideration.

Very respectfully,

FREDERICK B. MILES, Chairman,
 CHARLES A. BRINLEY,
 CHARLES E. BUSHNELL,
 EDMUND J. JAMES,
 CHARLEMAGNE TOWER, JR.

I.

REGISTRATIONS AND FACTS RELATING THERETO.

Sex of students—

Men 85
 Women 140

225

Residence of students—

In Philadelphia 145
 In Pennsylvania, exclusive of Philadelphia . 47
 Outside of Pennsylvania 33

225

Registration by Departments—

Inclusive 46
 A—Literature and History 51
 B—Psychology 38
 C—Music 8
 D—Biology 47
 E—Civics and Politics 23
 F—Mathematics 12

225

II.

RECEIPTS FROM SINGLE ADMISSIONS.

No Department given	\$67 75
Department A—	
Moulton	\$107 75
Perrin	4 00
Bevier	2 50
D'Ooge	4 50
Lamberton	50
No course given	10 00
	129 25
Department B—	
Dr. Newbold	50
Department C	2 50
Department D—	
Halstead	\$ 50
Mrs. Wilson	4 50
	5 00
Department E—	
E. E. Hale	\$41 85
James	1 50
Wilson	6 00
Bird	2 00
Jenks	50
W. B. Hale	50
	52 35
	\$254 35

III.

SUMMER MEETING ACCOUNTS.

	INCOME.	EXPENSE.	SURPLUS.	DEFICIT.
Inclusive Ticket	\$434.00		\$434.00	
Single Lectures	54.75		54.75	
Subscriptions	570.00		570.00	
Excursions	163.64	\$148.62	15.02	
Department A.—Literature and History	660.25	1036.33		\$376.08
Department B.—Psychology	515.50	577.07		61.57
Department C.—Music	67.50	139.50		72.00
Department D.—Biology	626.50	503.31	123.19	
Department E.—Civics and Politics	212.85	946.04		733.19
Department F.—Mathematics	124.00	139.99		8.99
General Expenses		574.77		574.77
	\$1438.99	\$4058.63	\$1206.96	\$1826.60

Total Deficit \$619.64

IV.

LECTURERS AND SUBJECTS.

Department A.—Sara Y. Stevenson, Sc. D., "Relation of Archaeology to the Study of Ancient History;" Dana C. Munro, M. A., "The Pre-Grecian Civilizations;" William Cranston Lawton, B. A., "The Period of Epic Poetry," and "Masterpieces of Attic Drama;" Bernadotte Perrin, LL. D., "Biographical Survey of Greek History;" Louis Bevier, Jr., Ph. D., "The Greek Drama;" Richard G. Moulton, Ph. D., "Ancient Tragedy for Modern Readers," and five evening recitals from ancient tragedy; John H. Wright, M. A., "Everyday Religion of the Greeks" and "Aspects of Greek Poetry;" William A. Lamberton, Litt. D., "Some Greek Conceptions of Life;" William A. Hammond, Ph. D., "Greek Philosophy: Socrates and the Culmination of Constructive Thought;" Martin L. D'Ooge, LL. D., "History of Greek Sculpture."

Department B.—William Romaine Newbold, Ph. D., "The Psychology of the Normal Mind" and "Hypnotic and Kindred Abnormal States of Mind;" Lightner Witmer, Ph. D., "Physiological Psychology of Adult and Child," "Anatomy and Physiology of the Nervous System," "Experimental Methods of Child Study."

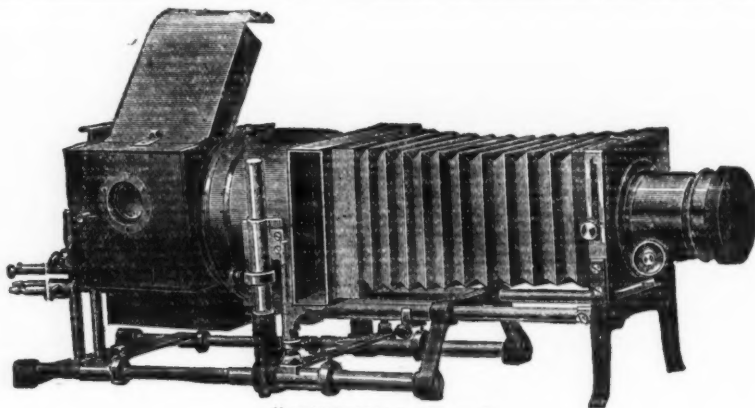
Department C.—Hugh A. Clarke, Mus. D., "Harmony," "Counterpoint."

Department D.—William P. Wilson, Sc. D., "Botany;" John M. Macfarlane, Sc. D., "Systematic Botany;" Edward D. Cope, Ph. D., "The Vertebrate Animals;" J. Sterling Kingsley, S. D., "The Invertebrate Animals;" Byron D. Halsted, Sc. D., "The Lower Plants;" Lucy Langdon Williams Wilson, "Biology from the Standpoint of Teachers in the Elementary Schools;" Liberty H. Bailey, M. S., "How Garden Varieties Originate: A Study in Evolution."

Department E.—Woodrow Wilson, LL. D., "Democracy," and "Constitutional Government of the United

States;" Jeremiah W. Jenks, Ph. D., "Politics in the Modern Democracy;" Henry Carter Adams, Ph. D., "Relation of the State to Industrial Society;" Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph. D., Special Topics; Edmund J. James, Ph. D., "The American Citizen: His Privileges and Immunities;" William G. Sumner, LL. D., Special Topics; Albert A. Bird, Ph. D., "The Municipal Government of Philadelphia;" E. R. L. Gould, Ph. D., "Social Problems of Cities;" William Bayard Hale, M. A., "Social Ideas and Social Realities;" Edward Everett Hale, D. D., "Social Reform" and "Personal Reminiscences."

Department F.—Dr. I. J. Schwatt, Mathematics.



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Afternoon Lectures (Special courses) Association Hall, 15th and Chestnut, at 4.30.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The History of Ireland	Feb. 3, 10, 17, 24, Mar. 2, 9.
Association Local,	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The Renaissance and the Reformation (on the Continent)	Jan. 7, 14, 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11.
Association Local,	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The Renaissance and the Reformation (in England)	Feb. 18, 25, Mar. 3, 10, 17, 24, 31.
Association Local,	Horace Howard Furness	Readings from Shakespeare	Mar. 13, 20, 27.
Germantown, 4 p. m.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	Mediæval England	Jan. 14, 21, 30, Feb. 6, 13, 20.
Germantown	W. Hudson Shaw . .	Reformation in England	Feb. 27, Mar. 5, 12, 19, 26, Apl. 2.
Germantown	J. Wells	Oxford	April 6, 9, 13, 16.
North Philadelphia,	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The Making of England	Jan. 18, Feb. 1, 15, 29, Mar. 14, 28.
Broad and Diamond sts.	E. D. Warfield . . .	Development of the United States .	Jan. 16, 23, 30, Feb. 6, 13, 20.
Peirce Schools,	Robert Ellis Thompson	Political Economy	Jan. 16, 23, 30, Feb. 6, 13, 20.
917 Chestnut st.	Albert A. Bird . . .	Municipal Government in Philadelphia	Jan. 8, 15, 22, 29, Feb. 5, 12.
South Philadelphia,	Albert A. Bird . . .	Municipal Government in Philadelphia	Jan. 9, 23, 30, Feb. 6, 13, 20.
Broad and Federal sts.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	Puritan Revolution	Jan. 20, Feb. 3, 17, Mar. 2, 16, 30.
Spring Garden Institute,	W. Clarke Robinson .	English Poets of the Revolution Age	Jan. 4, 18, 25, Feb. 1, 8, 15.
Broad and Spring Garden.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	Great Englishmen	Jan. 10, 17, 24, 31, Feb. 7, 14.
St. Timothy's Working-men's Club,			
Roxborough.			
West Philadelphia,			
West Spruce Street,			
17th and Spruce sts.			
Young Friends' Association,			
140 North 15th st.			

CENTRES OUT OF PHILADELPHIA.

Atlantic City, N. J.	Henry W. Elson . . .	Between the Two Wars	Jan. 7, 14, 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11.
Braddock	Henry W. Rolfe . . .	Representative English Authors . .	Jan. 16, 23, 30, Feb. 6, 13, 20.
Brooklyn Institute, 4p.m.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	Florentine History	Feb. 28, Mar. 6, 13, 20, 27, Apl. 3.
Burlington, N. J., 3.30 p.m.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	Florentine History	Jan. 18, Feb. 1, 15, 29, Mar. 14, 28.
Camden, N. J.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The Age of Elizabeth	Jan. 13, 27, Feb. 10, 24, Mar. 9, 23.
Chambersburg	Edward T. Devine . .	Representative Americans	Feb. 17, Mar. 2, 16, 30, Apl. 13, 27.
Chester	Henry W. Rolfe . . .	Representative English Authors . .	Feb. 24, Mar. 2, 9, 16, 23, 30.
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Franklin	John W. Perrin . . .	English History	Jan. 28, Feb. 11, 25, Mar. 10, 24, Apl. 7.
Greensburg	Henry W. Rolfe . . .	Representative English Authors . .	Jan. 14, 21, Feb. 4, 11, 18, 25.
Haddonfield, N. J.	John Bach McMaster .	First Quarter of the 19th Century .	Feb. 4, 11, 18, 25, Mar. 3, 10.
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Moorestown	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The Making of England	Jan. 15, 29, Feb. 12, 26, Mar. 11, 25.
Mt. Holly, N. J.	W. Clarke Robinson .	Shakespeare: the Man and his Mind .	
New York	Edward T. Devine . .	Representative Americans	Feb. 22, 29, Mar. 7, 14, 21, 28.
Ogontz	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The Reformation and the Revolution	Jan. 8, 22, Feb. 5, 19, Mar. 4, 18.
Orange, N. J.	W. Hudson Shaw . .	The Making of England	Feb. 21, 28, Mar. 6, 13, 20, 27.
Pittsburg	Henry W. Rolfe . . .	Representative English Authors . .	Jan. 13, 20, 27, Feb. 3, 10, 17.
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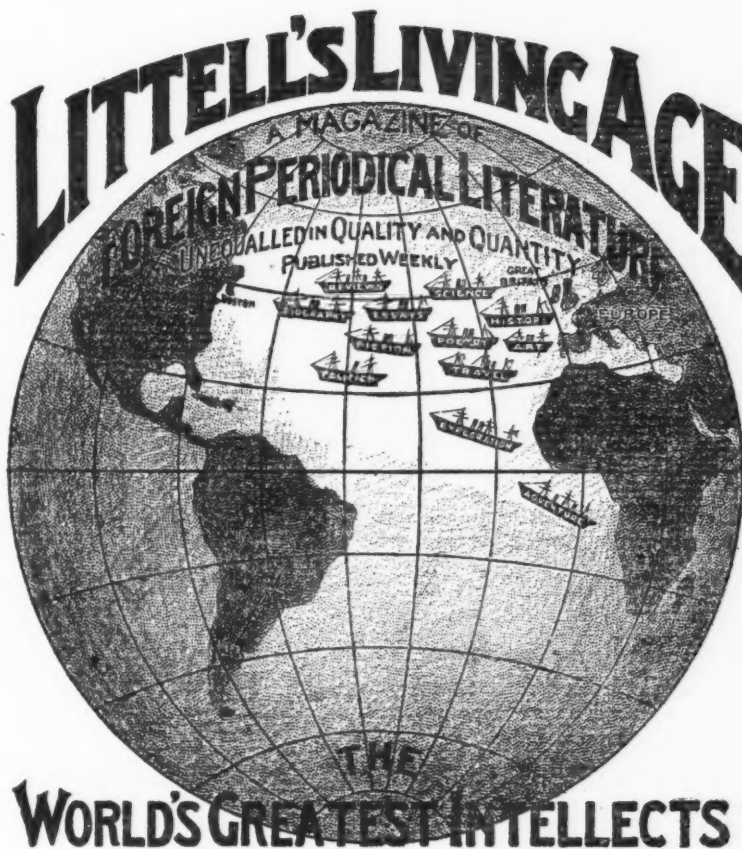
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